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ABSTRACT

The collected seminar papers on childhood education included in this publication have three main objectives: (1) To acquaint participants from four Utah universities with research trends, with emerging principles and practices in child development, (2) to confront participants with different points of view and to provide opportunities to clarify their own positions, and (3) to stimulate interaction between faculties and students from different institutions. The 26 conference papers covered a wide variety of topics including simulation games, group dynamics, beginning reading, motivation, teaching concepts, moral development, classroom behavior, and teacher attitudes. (CS)

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Collected Papers

1973

INTER-INSTITUTIONAL SEMINAR IN CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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Foreword

The 2nd annual Inter-Institutional Seminar in Childhood Education again combines talents of students and faculties from four Utah institutions of higher learning in the pursuit of major objectives.

1. To acquaint participants with research trends, with emerging principles and practices in child development and with child training and educational endeavors related to young children.

2. To confront participants with different points of view and to provide opportunities to clarify their own positions in the light of relevant examples and experiences by others.

3. To stimulate interaction between faculties and students from different institutions and thus to broaden their frame of exposure and reference beyond the parameters of "in born" philosophy and practice.

4. To create optimal conditions for learning in the informal settings of Snowbird Lodge where study, recreation and living circumstances can provide for total involvement by all participants according to their own styles and desires.

Utah's institutions are to be congratulated on the support of this cooperative venture and the opportunities for faculty, citizens and students to share in planning and implementation of an idea which works.

Helmut P. Hofmann
Academic Vice President and
Dean of Faculty
Westminster College
Salt Lake City, Utah

Preface

The collected papers included in this publication were originally presented during the 1973 Inter-Institutional Seminar in Childhood Education at Snowbird Lodge, Alta, Utah. The Seminar was held August 5-10 under the direction of the following staff members representing participating Utah institutions of higher learning:

Brigham Young University
Max Berryessa

University of Utah
Ruth Lundgren

Utah State University
Arthur Jackson

Weber State College
Lee Beckner
Carole Price — Seminar Coordinators

Ruth Williams
Ruth Gardner — Co-Directors

The first Utah Inter-Institutional Seminar, patterned after Inter-Institutional Seminars held in Walden Woods, Michigan, was held at Snowbird in 1972. The success of that seminar and its publication, Collected Papers 1972, justifies the continuation of the project to fulfill the seminar objectives. These objectives are stated in the foreword by Dr. Helmut F. Hofmann, a former director of the Inter-Institutional Seminar at Waldon Woods and one of the original supporters of the seminar in Utah.

The success of the 1973 Seminar is a result of the dedication of the scholars who presented papers, the philosophy and inspiration of Dr. Arthur W. Combs of the University of Florida who presented

the theme for each day and the cooperation of the Seminar staff. We wish to thank all who gave so willingly of their time and talent to insure the Seminar's success.

Ruth Williams
and
Ruth C. Gardner
Co-Directors

Transcendent Man: New Goals for Human Striving

Arthur W. Combs

University of Florida

Every man behaves in terms of his own reality. Each person acts in the light of what seems to him to be so. What people believe about themselves and others is therefore crucial in determining the directions of human striving. This is especially true with respect to those beliefs people hold about what is possible for the human organism. Such perceptions determine the very origins of behavior, the processes of thought and goal setting that precede whatever activities human beings engage in, intellectual, emotional, personal, social, esoteric or practical.

Modern psychology tells us each person behaves in terms of what he believes about himself and what he believes about the other persons he must interact with. The dynamic organization of beliefs about self, called the self concept, governs everything we do. It is the center of a person's existence, his frame of reference for every act. We do not strive for goals we know we cannot reach. We suffer in silence what it seems to us we deserve. So each person's beliefs about himself and his capabilities determine his personal aspirations and expectations. In similar fashion, beliefs about what other people are like govern our expectations and behavior toward them. Accordingly, important changes in our conceptions about the nature and extent of human capacities must inevitably be accompanied by far-reaching effects on

every phase of the human condition. Such a change is currently in progress and we will never again be the same for its having come among us.

Lest anyone doubt the extensive changes which can come about as a consequence of a shift in our thinking about the nature of human potential, he needs but remind himself of the implications of just such changes we have already experienced. Let men believe they are inferior beings and living in bondage seems "right" and "natural." Let them believe they can overthrow their oppressors and revolutions occur. Generations of sailors were kept close to shore by the belief that the world is flat and one would fall off the edge if he ventured too far from land. Let human beings but think they can sail round the world or off to the moon and the whole of human existence takes on new dimensions. The beliefs people hold about themselves and the world they live in can produce a stultifying confinement or stimulate creativity and accomplishment beyond our wildest dreams.

For generations we have lived, at least in Western culture, with a limited concept of human capacity. Man is seen as an object limited, like any other, by his physical characteristics. We came by this concept honestly as a consequence of our observations of people in action. One needed but look at his physical activities to observe how the body places limits on what is possible for human beings. The notion was further encouraged by governmental and religious leaders for whom it was often very convenient that men should believe their capacities were strictly limited. More recently the idea has been strengthened by studies in physiology, medicine and stimulus-response psychology which seem to corroborate "scientifically" the limited character of human potential.

The mischief done by this conception is stupendous. It has affected every phase of human existence. For example, this concept of capacity supports the belief in the innate inequality of man, which in turn gives credence to the "rightness" of relationship of lord and serf, master - slave, annointed - heathen, manager - worker, affluent - indigent, and a host of others. It also excuses the status quo. If human potential is limited, it follows that people are what they were "meant to be". The human condition is the "will of God". There is therefore little that either can or should be done about poverty, ignorance, prejudice, or vast inequalities of wealth and power. Proceeding from such assumptions, such models for dealing with human beings as the medical model in which the knower prescribes for the ignorant, or the political model of the ruler exerting his rightful power over the ruled seem accurate and "logical".

In every generation men have suspected there was something wrong with these models. They have sometimes questioned them philosophically or ideologically. Some have even dared to propose the democratic principle that "when men are free they can find their own best ways" or propose the "great society" of L.B.J. Such concepts were usually not rooted in basic concepts of human potential. Rather, they were usually advanced as "nice ideas hardly practical for the hard realities of life". They were employed on a "yes, but--" basis; "yes, I believe in democracy, but not in this case", or "yes, I would, but <u>they</u> won't let me!" Modern humanist thought takes a different perspective. It raises serious questions about fixed and immutable concepts of capacity and is finding increasing scientific support and affirmation for its position.

The humanist view sees man as much more than an object. The physical body man rides around in is not man himself. It is little more than a vehicle in which he travels, the "meat house in which he lives". This vehicle imposes limits upon some aspects of human behavior, to be sure. Any structure does. The structure of an automobile determines the general limits in which it can operate. It will not go far under water or fly far off the ground. Within its milieu, however, its possibilities are enormous. If it is in reasonable running condition the extent of its behavior is no longer a function of its structure. You cannot tell where it has been, where it is now or where it will go next from an examination of its anatomy.

Similarly, the behavior of an organism, modern psychologists tell us, transcends its structure. Given the vehicle to operate in, behavior thereafter is no longer explicable by structure but by perception. One must have eyes to see. Given eyes that see, however, after that what is seen, has been seen or will be seen in the future is only in small degree determined by the structure of the eye. Given a body that makes perception possible, after that the behavior of the body itself is determined by perceptions rather than the other way round. What a person perceives may cause him to subject his body to great risks or destroy it altogether. In the complex society we live in our most important behaviors have little or nothing to do with our physiological limits. Thinking, believing, problem-solving, understanding, communicating with each other, all these are little affected by physiologic limits. This principle is even more true of those behaviors which make us most human: loving, caring, hating, wishing, hoping, aspiring, striving.

Since behavior is a function of perception, the crucial determinants of capacity for behavior or misbehavior are the richness, the extent and the availability of the perceptions possessed by a person at a given moment. The importance of this conception is vast. Whereas, the limits of the body are finite, the number and variety of perceptions is practically astronomical. It follows that the capacities for behavior possessed by any individual exceed our wildest imagination. If, by intelligence, we mean the capacity of an individual to behave effectively and efficiently and if it is true, as perceptual psychologists say, that behavior is a function of perception, then it follows that intelligence must be a consequence of a rich, extensive and available field of perceptions. Intelligence, itself, can be created!

The limits of this single paper do not permit an exhaustive review of the evidence for this position. That has already been done elsewhere.[1] The reader who wishes to pursue the evidence on this question will find the search a fascinating one, but that pursuit is not currently the one that concerns us. For purposes of this discussion we accept the thinking of humanist psychologies as valid and the research evidence as supportive of this position. It is solely our intent here to explore some of the implications of this new view of capacity for the quality of thought and life in our times.

The orthodox view of previous generations regarded capacity as strictly limited, a function of heavenly or hereditary endowment and open to comparatively minor modifications. The perceptual approach

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1. See Hunt, J. McV. Intelligence and experience. Also Combs, A.W. and Snygg, D. Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior, Harper and Row, N. Y. 1959.

locates the limits of capacity in current perceptions rather than hereditary physical gifts. This is not to say that the physical body imposes no limits upon capacity. Of course it does. One needs to have a body sufficient to make perceiving possible. Once able to perceive, however, the crucial limits no longer lie in body structure. Like the behavior of an atomic pile, up to the point of the critical mass the radioactive ingredients behave in standard predictable fashion. When the point of fusion is reached, however, a whole new set of conditions comes into being. There are, of course, persons so physically limited as never to reach the threshold of adequacy. Fortunately, these are comparatively few and most persons are born with sufficient physical endowment to make perceiving possible. The body must "be enough" to make perception possible, but once that point is reached the limits upon perception enter a new dimension in which the crucial questions are not structural but experiential.

This new way of regarding potential human capacity does not do away with limits. Nothing exists without limits. It simply shifts the focus from structure to perception. But what limits perception?

Psychologists know of at least five. These are:

1. Opportunity: What a person is able to perceive will be dependent upon the opportunities he has had to experience. This seems so obvious as to hardly need repeating.

2. Need: Man is a striving creature continuously seeking fulfillment of need. The peculiar expression of need in a person's economy inevitably determines what that individual perceives. We see what we need to and miss what appears to lack relevance.

3. The self: Perhaps the most fascinating discovery of modern psychology is the effect of the self concept on perceiving and behaving. What a person believes about himself is the frame of reference for everything he does. People who see themselves as men perceive quite differently from people who perceive themselves as women, and those who are mixed up about this definition behave in mixed-up fashion. People who see themselves as liked, wanted, acceptable and able see the world quite differently from people who feel they are unliked, unwanted, unacceptable and unable.

4. The effect of goals and values: The values people hold have a highly selective effect upon what they are able to perceive. A man who values reading has a quite different world of experience from the person who does not. Similarly, if one has a goal to go fishing, what he perceives will be very much different from the person whose goal is to take a nap.

5. The effect of threat and challenge: People feel challenged when they are confronted with a problem that interests them and which seems to them to lie within their capacities. People feel threatened when they are confronted with problems they do not feel able to cope with. Human perception is opened and expanded by challenge. The experience of threat, on the other hand, forces defense of self and narrowing of perception to the object of threat.

Note that all these limitations upon perception are subject to manipulation. Perception is learned and can therefore be taught. Because this is so, we are given a whole new perspective on what man can become. There is not much one can do about heredity, but

the possibilities for changing human perceptions are almost infinite. In place of a concept of man futilely pushing against the upper limits of potential, we must understand human beings as hardly scratching the surface of their possibilities. Except for a comparatively few persons severly limited by physical endowment, most people seldom use but a very small portion of their ultimate capacity.

The human organism, we now understand, is vastly overbuilt. Like the well constructed bridge it is designed to withstand forces far in excess of daily requirements. It had to be so in the course of evolution. An organism incapable of rising to meet emergencies would long since have been eliminated. Had the human organism not possessed vast reservoirs of unused resources, it could never have withstood the exigencies of life or the inexorable processes of evolution.

Men can be and have been severely limited by the psychological factors affecting human potential listed above. They have lived in despair with concepts of themselves as inadequate or worthless. They have died for lack of opportunity. With needs unfulfilled they have lived perverted lives or lashed out in rage against their oppressors. With inadequate systems of values they have marched off by the millions in search of destructive goals. Subjected to diets of threat they have grown stultified and stupefied. The loss of human potential in such patterns of existence is so vast as to stagger the imagination.

The release of human potential, we now understand, is a problem

in fulfillment, in being given. To see oneself in positive ways requires positive experience. One cannot feel able without success, liked without being liked, acceptable without being accepted. Without opportunity potential dies a-borning. With basic needs unfulfilled men are forever caught in a dreary cycle of a bare struggle for existence. The deeply deprived fill our jails, our hospitals and our institutions. As Maslow suggested, their unacceptable behaviors represent the screams of the tortured at the crushing of their psychological bones. We cannot afford such losses in human potential.

If human potential is a function of the richness, extent and availability of perceptions, then human potential lies within our control. And that is an awesome responsibility. The failures of men whose potentialities were regarded as limited by the physical organism could be written off as the will of God. For those who believe potentials are almost unlimited, failures cannot be blithely assigned to the will of God. They must be accepted as the <u>lack of will</u> of man. There is a theological concept that there is no sin if the person did not know better. Now that we know what is possible for men, we live in grievous sin if we fail to act upon it. Our new conception of human capacity provides us at once with new hope and new agony. The implications of this conception have ramifications for every phase of modern life and thought. They must be injected into every facet of human thought and endeavor, philosophical, political, social, moral or aesthetic. Its implementation must become the major goal of our institutions, government,

education, industry, public health and welfare.

Seen in this new way, our concepts of human potential are not limits on human endeavor but new goals for human effort. For example, regarding intelligence as limited by heredity, our approach to "the gifted" has been to discover these lucky persons and provide them with special nourishment and opportunities. But if human potential is a consequence of perceiving and can therefore be created, gifted persons must be seen as our crowning achievement, the people with whom we have already been immensely successful. Our task then becomes, not to locate and coddle these fortunate ones but to find out how we did it--and get about the business of doing it for millions more.

The conversion of concepts of potential from limits on human endeavor to goals for constructive action is so significant a shift in our thinking and its implications for human welfare are so profound that implementation must not be delayed. The necessary clues to action are implicit in the limits upon perception outlined above. Where would such thinking lead us? To what new heights of human thought and understanding? What kind of world could we produce, for example, if we were systematically to provide for every human being optimum conditions for expanded perception? We do not lack the know-how. Troubadours, teachers, priests, poets, actors, writers, printers, and ordinary persons of every description have always engaged in expanding human awareness. To the multitude of techniques for communication and learning developed by these people we have added now the vast new resources provided by the world of

electronics--television, teaching machines, radio, computers, motion pictures and many more. With this new technology any of us can participate in a walk on the moon, a meeting of the United Nations or a battle in Viet Nam. No child in the world we live in needs to grow up without opportunities to perceive more broadly unless we will it so. Recent investigators have found that teaching mothers to stimulate their babies using ordinary materials found in any house produces significant increases in intelligence. If experience cannot be brought to a child, we can take him where the action is. In a world on wheels no child must grow up in a sterile existence if we do not want it so. The means for enriching experience lie all about us. We need but put it to work. The only thing which bars our way is a matter of priorities, whether we think it important.

The provision of experience can provide human beings with richer, more extensive fields of perception from which to select behavior. But capacity is dependent, not only on the existence of perception but upon availability; whether the organism is free to acquire and use perceptions. This is not an objective question but a phenomenological one having to do with the <u>meaning</u> of experience for the behaver. It is especially dependent, as we have seen, on need, values, threat, challenge and the nature of the self, all matters residing within the individual and only indirectly open to observation and manipulation. Learning to deal with such subjective questions is not an easy thing to bring about in a society like ours which traditionally worships objectivity, treats "scientific method" as a sacred law and regards the techniques of industrial management

and production as models for dealing with any kind of problem. If, however, human potential is a function of perception as modern psychology indicates, it is with that question we must learn to deal if we are to fulfill the promise these new understandings hold out for us. To achieve transcendence and the maximum release of human potential requires adoption of a new phenomenological perspective and a humanistic psychology capable of dealing with such concepts. Already there is some evidence that we are beginning to think in these ways and the humanistic psychologies of Rollo May, Erich Fromm, Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, Donald Snygg and Arthur Combs provide us with promising guidelines to thought and action.

From these beginnings who knows what might be accomplished by the systematic application of our new conceptions of human potential?

What sort of world could we create with an all-out commitment to the fulfillment of human need? Depravity, we now comprehend, is a function of deprivation. The best guarantee that a person will be successful in the future is frequent experience of success in the past. Failure and deprivation, psychologically, is like disease, physiologically; a hindrance or obstacle to the full exercise of the organism's potentials. A glance about us makes clear that too many of our efforts are often expended in the control and restriction of need satisfaction rather than nourishment of fulfillment. What kind of supermen might we produce in the next generation by fulfilling the comparatively simple needs of just the children in this generation? Fulfillment is a question of priorities.

What would be the outcome if we were to apply what we know about

the effects of threat and challenge upon perception even if we did this only for the young? Who knows what magnificent persons we might create by the systematic elimination of threat and the maximum exposure to challenge?

A view of human capacity defined in terms of heredity and structure is a discouraging prospect, at best, at least in so far as this generation is concerned. It sews the practitioner in a straitjacket of limitations and offers him little hope of positive results even with maximum effort. The perceptual view of capacity, on the other hand, opens a whole new world of thought and action for those concerned about the problems of man and society. The release of human potential becomes a problem to be dealt with <u>in the present</u> rather than through heredity and subject to change by experience rather than structure. Indeed, what needs to be done is often so obvious as to be clear to almost anyone willing to direct his attention to the proper questions. Perceptual limitations upon capacity suggest their own solutions. One needs but ask such questions as:

How can a person feel his needs are fulfilled unless someone fulfills them?

How can a person feel liked unless somebody likes him?

How can he feel he is a person of dignity and integrity unless someone treats him so?

How can a body feel successful without experience of success?

In the answers one finds to questions like these lie the guidelines to action for the fullest release of potential. Seen in this way the creation of human potential seems absurdly simple.

Of course, it is not. Even understood as a problem in perception, the encouragement of growth in capacity is still beset by limitations and human circumstances immensely difficult to change. Simply because we understand that capacity may be inhibited by perceptions and beliefs only defines the problem; it does not cure it. A man may be just as handicapped by a belief that he cannot do a thing as he would be if he were physically unable. Knowing that it is a belief that is crippling, however, pinpoints the problem and opens many new doors to treatment not available for solving a purely physical problem.

A belief about human capacity like that now advanced by the humanistic psychologist is much more than a nice idea. It provides a transcendent view of man, an essentially hopeful conception. It does much more. It sets new goals for human thought and action, new clues to improving the human condition. As a break through in the social sciences, it may one day be understood as far surpassing in importance more widely heralded discoveries in the physical world.

SHOULD TEACHERS DEAL WITH VALUES?*

James P. Shaver

> Teachers have no business dealing with values. The school's role is to teach skills--such as in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in vocational areas. The values of youth are the business of home and church.
>
> The school is an instrument of society. Teachers must, therefore, be deeply involved in shaping the values of young people--from instilling important personal values, such as honesty, to inculcating values of fundamental importance, such as patriotism. If they did otherwise, teachers would be derelict in their duty.

To which of these points of view should teachers subscribe? Or is there some other position that more legitimately prescribes an appropriate role for teachers in a democratic society. Of the many frustrating issues that teachers face, as perplexing as any is the one posed by the question, "What should I do about values when I am teaching?"

It is all too easy for a teacher to attempt to avoid facing thorny questions about values by claiming that "I do not deal with values in my classroom", or "The subject matter I teach is value-free". This kind of disclaimer ignores two very important realities of the school. One has to do with the teacher as a curriculum decision-maker; the other with the teacher as part of the school's social system.

In the first place, it is important to ask whether any subject is "value free". It is perhaps fairly obvious that values are central to instruction in music, art, and literature--the school's esthetic curricula. After all, the major concern there is with the student's valuing of beauty.

---

*Based on a chapter in a forthcoming book, Values and the Teacher (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth).

The lack of a value-free curriculum may be less obvious in an area such as social studies. This is especially true when a teacher sees his or her role as that of teaching social science concepts adapted and simplified so that the students can understand them. But even then, the teacher, as curriculum decision-maker, is dealing with values. Why teach from a foundation of social science concepts instead of beginning from a focus on public controversy? Why emphasize material from history and not from some other social science, or vice versa? Why, within any one scholarly area, teach some concepts and data and not others? What if the social studies teacher teaches a neat, academically sound account of the Civil War, including pre- and antebellum events--but doesn't comment on the morality of slavery or on the behavior of whites and blacks during the Reconstruction Period?

Decisions in regard to such curricular matters are based on value priorities and make certain value-related outcomes more likely. For example, what are the implications of one's answers to the above questions for: the importance of dealing with abstract ideas as compared to dealing with the nasty realities of social reality; the relative significance of different areas of history and social science content; the importance of confronting basic moral issues; and, perhaps most important of all, the student's valuing of the school in terms of its relevance to the world "out there"--especially his own life?

Even if a teacher could avoid all perplexing issues involved in the selection of content and feel comfortable teaching "pure" social science, that content would bring values into the room. Social scientists study values as one social phenomenon; but, even more

important to our concerns here, the social scientist's values affect his studies.

The commitment of the scientist to seek the truth is part of the scientific lore. As Bronowski[1] has put it:

> In practicing science, we accept from the outset an end which is laid down for us. The end of science is to discover what is true about the world. The activity of science is directed to seek the truth, and it is judged by that criterion. We can practice science only if we value the truth (pp. 99-100).

Despite the scientist's overarching commitment to "truth", other of his values creep into and are implicit in his work. Consider, for example, the pioneering work of Alfred Kinsey, who applied his earlier taxonomic training in zoology to the study of the sexual behavior of man and produced the classic volumes, Sexual Behavior in the Human Male[2] and Sexual Behavior in the Human Female[3]. Although his approach was quantitative, the moral implications were great. His data showing that there was little relation between sexual mores and actual sexual behavior clearly have had a liberalizing effect on our society.

Kinsey viewed his own work as purely scientific documents. But others have regarded them as "highly tendentious" and "with a distinct permissivist bias. . .[a] fundamentally materialist notion of human sexuality".[4] Robinson (pp. 100, 102) commented:

> There was some justice in these [criticisms]. Kinsey never recognized that by asking certain questions rather than others he committed himself to a particular conception of sexual life, which while "objective" in the sense that it did not contradict the facts, was nonetheless partial. He tended to ask about physical acts, not about the internal states accompanying them, and he naturally found it easier to measure the quantity rather than the quality of acts.[5]

Scientific methodology is not, then, value free. The methods selected can result in "scientific" data with profound value implications. Moreover, the selection and use of method can have important

value implications in the teaching of science. For example, students kill and dissect frogs in a biology class: What are they being taught about the value of life?

Values may be implicit in other ways when science is taught. In teaching biology, no assignments or class discussions have to do with ecological problems. A decision not to deal with such matters in teaching science can be justified, particularly in the context of a particular unit of study as opposed to a total curriculum. But what does such a decision convey to the student about the values of the teacher and the school, and about the kinds of intellectual activities and ends he should value?

A math teacher scolds a student for not appreciating the beauty of geometry; or the students that are counseled into courses that call for the practical application of math concepts, such as business math, are all "less bright", non-college oriented, working class students. What are the implications in regard to the kinds of knowledge to be valued, or, in the second instance, the kinds of persons who are most valued?

A "Hidden" Curriculum

It has been popular in the last few years to talk about the school's "hidden curriculum"--the unintentional, even unsuspected, experiences that result in unplanned student learning. This learning may not correspond to any of the school's stated or consciously desired objectives, and may even run counter to them.

The hidden curriculum for values includes the often unexamined value implications of "scientific" and other content and the unintentional implications of methods of classroom instruction, and more.

In and out of the classroom, as part of the social and political system of the school, the teacher is constantly making noninstructional value-related decisions, often without being aware of the ramifications. A teacher scolds a tenth grade boy and girl for walking down the hall with their arms around one another. A principal asks a seventh grade teacher to send to his office a list of the boys whose hair has reached an objectional length, and the teacher does so. An elementary teacher chastizes her children for wearing muddy boots into the classroom or for not putting books back on the shelves neatly. In each instance, the teacher is saying something to the students about his or her values and about what he (or she) thinks the students' values ought to be.

There is no use pretending that such value-related decisions on the part of teachers can be avoided. We must act and our values will be a major influence in determining what we teach and how we treat students. The danger is in pretending that what we do is "value free". Wearing such blinders allows unexamined assumptions and biases to influence our behavior and have an impact on our students--often to the detriment of the objectives we seek on a conscious level.

Frame of Reference

The question, then, is not whether teachers will deal with values or whether their values will affect what they do, or even whether teachers should deal with values. It is rather, what will you do about values, and will you be aware of the influence of your own values and make it as conscious and rational as possible? Charles Beard, a historian who became involved in thinking about the secondary

school social studies curriculum in the 1930's, emphasized the importance of the latter point extremely well. He wrote:

> Every human being brought up in society inevitably has in mind a frame of social knowledge, ideas, and ideals--a more or less definite pattern of things deemed necessary, things deemed possible, and things deemed desirable; and to this frame or pattern, his thought and action will be more or less consciously referred. This frame may be large or small; it may embrace an immense store of knowledge or little knowledge; it may be well organized with respect to categories of social thought or confused and blurred in organization; and the ideal element in it may represent the highest or lowest aspirations of mankind. But frame there is in every human mind. This is known, if anything is known. If the fact be denied, if a large, clarified, and informed frame of purpose is rejected, is deliberatedly and ostentatiously put out at the front door of the mind, then small, provincial, local, class, group, or personal prejudices will come in at the rear door, occupy the background of the mind, and constitute the frame. . . .[N]o one can profess to know everything or to believe nothing, to possess the whole truth or to exercise no preferences in the selection, arrangement, and presentation of materials for thought and instruction with respect to particular truths.
>
> Theoretically, to be sure teachers . . . might dump all things known . . . before children pell mell and leave children to "follow their own interests" in making pleasing, agreeable, or satisfactory selections from the heap of "facts." Practically no such operation is possible . . . when any large area of occurences or experiences is under consideration. Since all things known cannot be placed before children in the school room, there must and will be, inevitably, a selection, and the selection will be made with reference to some frame of knowledge and values, more or less consciously established in the mind of the selector. If anything is known in the social sciences, this is known.[6]

For purposes of simplicity, we will use the term frame of reference to refer to what Beard calls "a frame of social knowledge, ideas, and ideals".

In considering values and the teacher, it is crucial to underscore Beard's point that a frame of reference is not something that some people have and others don't. Each of us has a frame of reference;

our ideals (our values) are a very important part of that frame; and each person's actions are influenced by his frame of reference (we rarely, for example, attempt what we deem to be impossible or immoral). And, as Beard noted, to be unaware of or to deny the presence and impact of a frame of reference only leaves the individual susceptible to the unthinking application and imposition of his frame, including the values in it.

Two Levels of Curriculum

It is important, as was suggested earlier, to consider questions about values and the teacher on two levels: First, and perhaps more obvious, is the formal curriculum level. On this level we need to ask such questions as, What should I teach about values in my class? Should I engage my students in the critical examination of values--theirs, their parents', society's? The second level is the hidden curriculum--the often unintentional biases in method and content, and the nuances of the teacher's behavior as an instructor and outside the classroom as a member of the school's social and political system. On this level, we need to ask questions such as, What do my actions imply about moral behavior or about the acceptability of different life styles. What implicit value biases are built into my teaching methods or the scholarly methodology underlying the content I teach?

From Frame to Rationale

It is essential that each teacher develop a rationale for dealing with values in the school--at both the formal and hidden curriculum levels. That is, each of us who teaches should examine carefully the beliefs--factual and evaluative--in his or her frame of reference

that influence how he or she handles values and makes value-related curricular decisions at both the formal and hidden levels.

Many of the elements in our frames of reference that are relevant to teaching are unexplicated, unexamined assumptions. If our behavior is to be as rational as possible, these assumptions need to be brought into the open, stated as clearly as possible, examined for accuracy and for consistency, and implications drawn for instructional and other behavior toward students (for example, in the lunch room or during hall duty). The product of this process of explicating and clarifying one's frame of reference is a rationale--the statement and explanation of the basic principles upon which the teacher's school behavior (both in the formal classroom setting and during the other encounters within the school's social and political system) is based.

The development of a conscious rationale for teaching, as distinct from an unrecognized frame of reference, is essential but not easy. There are a large number of complex facets to such a rationale. Begging for clarification, for example, are assumptions about the society and the school's relationship to it, about the nature of children and how they learn, about the nature of values. The critical examination of our unconscious and frequently cherished assumptions in these areas is not something that is accomplished overnight, nor even during an undergraduate course or an inservice training program. In fact, one is not likely to ever arrive at a completely explicated and polished rationale.

A rationale, like the person who is attempting to develop it, evolves and is always in the process of becoming. Your rationale may become more explicit, more comprehensive, more logical in the

interrelationships of its parts, clearer in its implications for your behavior as a teacher. But it ought never to be considered final, for that would imply that you yourself have stopped changing.

All of one's education, out of school as well as in, contributes to his frame of reference. Unfortunately, there is little in our education, in or out of school, to help each of us develop a rationale for our behavior as teachers.

Teacher education programs (in common with most other curricula for educating professionals) are notably lacking in experiences that are explicitly and intentionally geared to assisting the prospective or practicing teacher to examine his frame of reference and begin the arduous, but challenging, task of developing a systematic rationale to which to refer his or her instructional decisions. Philosophy courses typically deal with formalized categories of thought (e.g., idealism, realism, neo-Thomism, experimentalism, and existentialism) that are useful for scholarly exercises in classification, but tend to be of little use to the teacher in thinking about day-to-day decisions. Only rarely is instruction geared to engaging prospective or practicing teachers in the rigorous philosophical examination of his or her own factual and evaluative assumptions.

Along the same lines, curriculum and methods courses tend to talk of techniques and review new curricula without enmeshing teachers in the examination of the underlying assumptions or in the development of criteria by which to decide which techniques and curricular products to use.

Of course, most professors of the other courses (the "academic" courses) in teaching preparation programs would be horrified at the

suggestion that they ought to do more than impart the basic knowledge of their disciplines, although occasionally "academic" courses are aimed at how the knowledge of a discipline might be taught to elementary and secondary school youth.

This delinquency in the education of teachers is critical. How much of the commonly noted alienation of students from the school is due to the failure of school people to critically examine the frames of reference from which they make instructional decisions? For instance, how many teachers unthinkingly expect students to enjoy a subject matter area because they (the teachers) do--which is, after all, one major reason that they are teaching? How many teachers assume unthinkingly that their students should accept knowledge for its own sake regardless of its relevance to their daily lives, not recognizing that they themselves tend to remember that knowledge which they are able to use in construing and dealing with their own lives? Such questions suggest the kind of critical examination that is necessary in deciding whether we as teachers are treating values in a way that is justifiable in a democratic society, or whether that treatment is legitimate in terms of the student's own personal integrity and the frequent frustration at the lack of relationship between "school learning" and the "real world out there".

An important reason for developing a rationale is to avoid the unthinking imposition of beliefs. Equally important is the need for a systematic, well-grounded basis from which to explain, even defend, one's instructional behavior to administrators and parents. In the social studies, for example, teachers challenged for raising controversial issues in their classrooms have gotten into trouble because

their justification was not much deeper than, "Controversy is good". Certainly, in a democratic society a more profound and persuasive justification could be at hand. When schooling touches on values, parents are particularly likely to be aroused to emotional reactions, and a rationale becomes a professional necessity.

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SIMULATION GAMES IN SOCIAL STUDIES: PLAY AS YOU LEARN

by Geneva Winterrose

The goal of educational games is to make learning real, to make the classroom come "alive," to actively involve students in a direct learning experience. Simulation games are rather recent innovations but, if well planned, can be one of the best teaching techniques we have to involve students in learning.

In social studies, simulation games are defined as working models of physical and social situations with certain aspects of the "real thing" being included and reduced in size to manageable proportions. The designer includes only those elements of reality that are most relevant to his purposes. Characteristics common to simulation games are: they are simplified abstractions of the real world; they usually involve competition between players or teams of players; they progress through a series of plays or cycles which represent some actual period of time and sequence of events; they usually compress time, such as one round of play representing one year of time, although some may be set in real time; they "usually employ a simulated environment representing those aspects of the real world relevant to the objectives of the game."[1]

An example of a simulated game is one developed by William A. Nesbitt entitled, "The Oil Islands Dispute: A Classroom Game of Conflict and Cooperation." While it only involves two players, it "does combine the two essential primary elements of simulations--role-playing with a scenario and a game format in which strategies have clear outcomes for the players."[2] To play the game

the class is divided into groups of three, one to be the referee and scorekeeper and the other two to play the game. The referee in each group keeps track of the gains and losses of each player for the ten rounds of play. Lined paper with one column headed U.S. and another column headed U.S.S.R. is needed by the referee. The following scenario is given to the students, either orally or in writing, and the play proceeds.

> "It is the year 1980. Vast oil deposits have been discovered on islands in the Bering Straits area between the United States and the Soviet Union. Neither country had pressed their claims to these islands before, although both had good historical and legal arguments to do so. Now, however, with a serious shortage of oil clearly ahead for the world, both countries consider the oil islands of extreme importance. Indeed, the continued economic development of both countries may depend on access to this oil."[3]

The players in each group decide who will represent the United States in the dispute over the islands and who will represent the Soviet Union. Since ten islands are involved there are ten rounds of action choices. For each round the player may make one of two choices: he may decide to cooperate in developing the oil and sharing the profits or he may attempt to seize the island. Each player has a red and a blue chip which he holds under the desk or table. The referee says, "1, 2, 3, show!" and the players show at the same time either a red or blue chip. The red chip means he wishes to seize the island and the blue chip means he wishes to cooperate with the other country in developing it. If both players indicate that they wish to cooperate they each receive $1 billion as shared profits. If one player indicates seizure and the other cooperation, the island is considered successfully seized and the player showing the red chip receives all of the profits, $2 billion, and the player showing the blue chip loses $1 billion, which

signifies that his country has lost prestige. If both of the players show red chips, indicating that they wish to seize the island, each player loses $1 billion which represents the cost of naval and amphibious operations.

The game is followed by discussion or "debriefing" concerning which was the more successful, cooperation or conflict.

Simulations seem to be growing in popularity as more and more are becoming available. Their greatest strength lies in their effectiveness in stimulating student interest and involvement. It is left to each classroom teacher to determine if the educational value derived from them justifies their use. If the teacher is primarily interested in the factual, conceptual knowledge gained, games do not rate high as instructional tools. If, however, major emphasis is placed on the affective learning areas, or the attitudes and values students are gaining, games will be more widely used. Researchers point out some areas in which they do rate well as effective teaching instruments. Goodsell says, "Students learn when their values, beliefs, and attitudes are involved--the over-used word is 'relevance.' If the subject matter and the classroom experience have meaning for the student, he will want to learn . . . Simulation games as a teaching device are so highly regarded that they are in standard use by many industries and by governmental, including military, agencies."[4] Livingston states that, "Their value appears to lie in their ability to clarify abstract relationships by presenting them on a more concrete level which the students can experience directly, and in their power to influence students' attitudes."[5] Kachaturoff believes that simulation games, "consequently develop concepts and insights which will help him (the student) identify

himself and make decisions of greatest value to himself and others."[6] Lewis adds that, "if all goes as planned, even the least successful encounters open young eyes to a realistic view of something previously unrecognizable."[7]

Some claims by current researchers as to values derived from simulation games are that they:

1. ". . . are designed to allow youngsters to experience a wide assortment of adult-type encounters without fear of serious reprisal from wrong actions or judgments. Students interact at their own levels; peer pressures dissolve in a self-judged simulated environment."[8]

2. "Require the student to conceptualize, apply predictions, interpret propositions, and evaluate formulations."[9]

3. Provide "the student many opportunities to exercise his independence, creativity, intellectual competence, and maturity."[10]

4. "Require and promote a more independent attitude on the part of the learner."[11]

5. Help students to "develop critical thinking, to summarize knowledge, to achieve definite goals, and to use skills related to a problem or project."[12]

6. Replace words by actions in the classroom.

7. "May be symptomatic of the irrelevance of much that goes on today in our classrooms if the drive of youth is to be rekindled."[13]

Educational games do have problems or limitations. One of these is the time involvement. Each teacher must weigh the value of transferring time from the traditional academic pursuits to game playing. Another concern is the somewhat higher classroom noise level and degree of physical activity involved in games. Some teachers may fear that teacher control of the classroom will dissolve. Many teachers lack proper orientation and training in game playing and so avoid using them because of an uncomfortable or insecure feeling in trying out new teaching strategies. Another

problem is the lack of conclusive evidence as to the amount of learning which actually takes place. Youngers and Aceti warn that, "simulation games are not intended as an educational cure-all. They are more appropriate for teaching some things than others. This is best left to the teacher to decide within the setting of his own classroom."[14]

While more experimentation and evaluation are needed, there can be little doubt that games are very exciting and promising educational media.

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GROUP SPONTANEITY BY THE CASE

William C. Nutting

The content of the elementary school curriculum has been in for a great deal of criticism in recent years. And some of it has probably been deserved. The purpose of this paper, however, is not to review what may be wrong with that which is now included in the curriculum, but rather to point out what is right with some of that which is not presently included.

First, there ought to be much more forthright encouragement of spontaneity on the part of children in school. And, second, there ought to be much more opportunity for realistic and purposeful social encounter among children in their school-based learning experiences. A good many school people will readily agree with both of these premises. But the question of implementation remains. How may we go about meeting these particular unfulfilled needs without jeopardizing some of the more worthwhile aspects of the established curriculum?

But maybe this is not such a dilema as has generally been presumed. Perhaps the answer is as obvious as the question. Why not get at both of these needs by systematically promoting within the school some of the same kinds of group-inspired undertakings that are such clear challenges to children in their out-of-school, non-supervised hours? We see this sort of spontaneous group activity going on constantly in every residential neighborhood on weekends and during summer vacations. Informality, natural exuberance, and all-out team effort are all in order. Children identify a mutual interest, are moved somehow to commit themselves to a particular

challenge, work to develop the concern through their own resources and amazing energy, and finally close out the matter to their own satisfaction. Many of these group undertakings are deserving of a respectable place in the school curriculum. So let us examine the possibility of legitimizing this sort of natural learning as an additional approach--not, as already indicated, to correct what is now standard in the curriculum, but to include something important that is not yet there.

Let us consider first the matter of spontaneity as an educational necessity. By nature, children are spontaneous activists. They are impulsive doers; they find it difficult to be passive and quiet, and impossible to wait. This is the way they came into the world; and it is the way they will continue to grow until much of that natural spontaneity and activism has been ultimately squeezed from their behavior in the name of conformity--not merely by the school, but by all of our social agencies. There is no doubt that spontaneity is systematically--although perhaps not intentionally--dried up during the childhood years. But the human race needs spontaneity. And it needs activism. Admittedly, spontaneity and activism are not comforting to established society, but they are essential to human progress.

The world really needs its Albert Einsteins and its Winston Churchills. But how are they produced? The rarity of such individuals among the millions might suggest that largely we have been going about it backwards. It does not seem unlikely that exemplary instances of brilliance may have emerged in spite of, rather than because of, our educational agencies--like a determined shrub growing miraculously out of the face of a granite cliff.

Childhood exuberance ought not be stifled, but cherished and tended as a precious hope for succeeding generations. There should be provision for spontaneity in the child's curriculum. But, as of now, there is virtually none. In the main, whatever moments of childhood spontaneity are to be found in school situations are there as contraband. They are not officially encouraged, but either permitted by an indulgent principal or smuggled in under euphemistic wraps by clever curriculum-running teachers. Spontaneity, it might be argued, is a vital personality characteristic, and provision for it should not have to be bootlegged into the child's formative years. On the contrary, we should legalize it and deliberately foster it in the curriculum.

In the interest of clear communication, it may be helpful to pause at this point for a definition of terms. In particular, we should distinguish between curriculum and instruction. We may say that there are three major aspects, or domains, of schooling. And, while the three overlap considerably in their functions, each has a specific role. Curriculum consists of those selected learning experiences that are intended to result in certain educational objectives, as well as the particular scope and sequencing of those experiences. Instruction is the business of relating the curriculum to the learner, and it includes the methods, strategies, and techniques for bringing this about. Organization is the arrangement and coordination of pupils, faculty, and staff through assignment and scheduling with respect to available time, space, and learning materials. We can see that teachers, although mainly concerned with matters of instruction, are also involved to an extent in both curriculum and organization.

As a general rule, teachers are much more restricted in their roles as organizers and curriculum makers than they are as instructors, despite the unhappy fact that they are frequently held equally accountable for all three. The reason for interrupting the discourse here to point out the distinction in terms is to suggest that any comments about curriculum should not be interpreted as applying to instruction.

Elementary curriculum ought to be dedicated--at least in part--to the development of scholarship in every child. But genuine scholarship implies both a reasonable mastery of knowledge and an unquenchable drive to use that knowledge in ways that are individually enhancing and personally satisfying.

The main job of the elementary school, it might be suggested, ought to be to train the mind and free the spirit--a twofold charge. But, while curriculum makers have generally subscribed--at least lipwise--to the dual needs of both disciplinary conformance and individual human release, in practice the matter of selecting and sequencing children's learning experiences has more often been reduced to an either-or proposition.

Thus, over the years we have become accustomed to what has often been termed the "pendulum effect" in curriculum development. Periodically --and it does seem in retrospect that the pulsing has corresponded fairly well to the Biblical seven fat years and the seven lean years--we have perceived almost a 180-degree change in thrust from a fanatical disciplinary, or knowledge-centered, reference to one of strong humanistic focus. And then, of course, back invariably in the reverse swing.

Surely, it is time to cease debating the relative merits and shortcomings of a knowledge-based versus a child-oriented curriculum, and to accept the challenge of including both approaches in a legitimate and straightforward manner. Both approaches are essential; and both are feasible.

As mentioned earlier, another serious oversight in today's curriculum is the paucity of genuine person-to-person, person-to-group, and group-to-group relationships. While it is very true that many teachers--mostly in their instructional roles--have managed to emphasize some mutuality of purpose and feelings of togetherness, there is virtually nothing in the curriculum as such to crack through the nonconductive social insulators that encapsulate each school child. A thoughtful examination of the elementary curriculum largely substantiates the charge that a pupil's day is socially sterile. He exists near other children--he is surrounded by them; but he is not really with them. Tucked away securely in his little educational cocoon, he bides his time. (Perhaps there is more than an auditory similarity between the words pupil and pupa.)

What we are pleased to call classroom groups are more accurately divisions, or--at best--aggregates, of children who just happen to comprise a given section of the school enrollment. Any significant exceptions to this have generally resulted from the imagination and cleverness--and at times even foolhardiness--of teachers acting through their own resources. Within the curriculum itself, however, there has been little if any recognition that a human child is a co-responding social animal whose sociality must be nourished. So this constitutes a second deficiency in the curriculum that must be remedied.

We can see that childhood spontaneity and interpersonal action are important facets of a humanistic approach. And we can recognize that, by and large, the elementary curriculum has not met these needs.

Why not? One possible reason is that, while all curriculum makers readily assume that the traditional school subjects are essential to curriculum, some have not accepted humanistic objectives as similarly belonging. Rather, they have assigned this particular responsibility to the domain of instruction. And apparently with some conviction, for most of us have at some time heard the statement--possibly uttered in all seriousness by a child, a parent, a principal, or even a teacher--that "it all depends upon the teacher." Surely this is begging the point. Of course, it is good to have outstanding teachers, but making them accountable for humanizing the child's education does not mitigate the necessity of providing within the curriculum itself those learning experiences that are intended to result in the full range of educational purposes that have been identified.

But perhaps the most likely reason that provision has not been made in the curriculum for youthful spontaneity and social interaction is the absence of some recognizable, dependable vehicle by which a humanistic, or child-centered, approach may be implemented as effectively and as surely as subject matter study provides a dependable carrier for the objectives of a disciplinary, or knowledge-centered orientation.

What is the answer? As already indicated, it is <u>not</u> to shunt the onus of providing spontaneity and human relationships from curriculum development to instruction. Nor is the answer to eliminate

subject matter from the curriculum--although this has been seriously proposed by some of the further-out earth shakers. As things now stand, eliminating subject matter would effectively eliminate the whole curriculum. Certainly, subject matter is far from perfect, but at least in its improved forms it is our most dependable instrument for dealing realistically with the content and structure of formalized knowledge in the child's education. Subject matter in some form will remain basic in the curriculum--at least in the foreseeable future. And, of course, there are the perennial attempts to water down the essential rigor of the subject matter areas, which may actually be worse than eliminating subject matter entirely, since there remains the implication that subject matter is being taught when in fact it may only be pablum digested as beefsteak. This, very definitely, is <u>not</u> the answer.

How, then, may we hope to respond to the need for more spontaneity and child-to-child interaction in the curriculum? Where shall we find an implementing vehicle that functions in a child-centered approach as efficiently and as dependably as subject matter study at its best functions in a disciplinary approach? Just as subject matter has been formed out of the disciplines, so must we have a curriculum scheme that has been formed out of genuine childhood spontaneity and forthright group interaction within the school situation. We must recognize two distinct approaches to curriculum--the child-oriented and the knowledge-focused. And we must employ an appropriate vehicle for each. We must have an honest, systematic, workable, and dependable design for transforming good intentions into the actual achievement of educational objectives.

Such a curriculum design has been described in a recent publication. It has been termed "case-action learning."[1]

Case-action learning has been defined as a group undertaking of some significance that evolves naturally out of a "case" which children take on and carry out through their own imagination and effort. The fact that it takes place under the sponsorship of the school and the guidance of a helpful teacher in no way reduces the degree of natural spontaneity and group action. From the children's point of view, each such case is a spontaneous happening: they identify an interest in something, become concerned to the point of making a voluntary commitment, get themselves properly organized, develop the undertaking, and finally close it out to their own particular satisfaction.[2]

But a teacher knows that spontaneity does not obtain in a vacuum. He knows that favorable conditions are essential. And this, in turn, means effective advance planning. It calls for a design whereby such preparations may be done systematically and efficiently. Achieving group spontaneity by design is not--as it may seem at first--to be an impossible incongruity. But it does demand that pupils lead out boldly in response to their own inner feelings and drives. And it requires a high degree of flexibility on the part of a teacher.[3]

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[1] William C. Nutting, Designing Classroom Spontaneity: Case-Action Learning (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973).

[2] Ibid., pp. 34-39.

[3] Ibid., pp. 78-82.

The range of possible undertakings in case-action learning is virtually unlimited. Any concern of genuine importance to children may qualify. Cases have been built around school-related opportunities or dissatisfactions, efforts at voluntary philanthropy, enterprises in self-help, learning about community life, developing hobbies or activities, culture study, response to crucial issues, extensions of topics in the news, and even of simple, raw challenge or optional pursuits of information. Basic to the notion of case-action learning is that children sincerely want to work and that they should be allowed to work in their own way toward their own purposes.[4]

But these undertakings will be more effective, more satisfying, and more likely to succeed if they are facilitated by adequate teacher planning. Such planning demands intelligence, creativity, and a keen sensitivity to the needs and feelings of children. Haphazard procedures simply will not suffice. The recommended design is comprised of six logically-sequenced steps by which advance planning for successful cases may be a simple, systematic, unhurried, but highly effective procedure.[5]

"Case-action learning," it has been pointed out, "is not intended to supplant subject matter in any way, but rather to provide an essential component. A desirable relationship results in a vital balance in elementary curriculum which contributes significantly to a foundation of genuine scholarship in each child."[6]

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[4] Ibid., pp. 82-90.

[5] Ibid., pp. 90-92.

[6] Ibid., pp. 221-222.

It has been claimed that case-action learning can enrich a child's school experiences and fill a void in elementary curriculum.[7]

Just what is unique or special about case-action learning? For one thing, it frankly recognizes the teacher not only as a skilled instructor, but also as a qualified curriculum maker. This in itself is a significant point, for it gets curriculum making right into the classroom where immediacy of both time and circumstance can be met realistically--as different from pre-packaged curriculum as good home cooking is from a frozen TV dinner. The adoption of case-action learning as a vehicle for a child-oriented approach gives the teacher, in effect, a license to practice curriculum making openly, rather than being limited to sneaking in opportunities for spontaneity through the back door.

Another special benefit in adopting case-action learning is that it implies an almost-unprecidented faith in a group of children as eager self-starters and as tireless researchers, creators, and developers. Case-action learning is premised upon children's refreshing inpulsiveness, their natural love of relevant work, and their craving for challenge and action.

Opportunities for meaningful group-instigated undertakings are all about. We only have to look. Whatever is of genuine interest or honest concern to a group of children may become the substance of a fascinating and satisfying case. Consider, for example, the inspired classroom group of intermediate-grade pupils who worked with a veritable passion to design and build a foldaway

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[7] Ibid., p. 223.

playhouse as a marvelous Christmas present for the kindergarten children in their school. Or think about the first graders who undertook to select and obtain a suitable pet for their classroom--a case that absorbed their imagination and effort for a period of two weeks.[8]

The possibilities are really endless. A fifth-grade class, for instance, adapted an interesting story for puppetry dramatization and presented a fine show to youngsters confined in a crippled children's hospital. Another group of pupils found great satisfaction during the few weeks prior to the Christmas vacation in sponsoring a qualified family in a particular "Sub-for-Santa" campaign. Some of the older children in an elementary school in a rural area worked hard to establish themselves in an actual money-making poultry business as the outcome of a particularly notable work-project case. A primary-grade class undertook to learn more about the telephone, both as a means of communication and as a business. A study of the local coal-mining industry was carried out as an information-seeking case by some fourth graders. Some intermediate-grade children founded a school newspaper. Another successful case resulted in the forming of a knowledgeable camera club. Even the sky is not necessarily the limit, as one group of children discovered in focusing upon an absorbing study of an Apollo moon voyage.[9]

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[8] Ibid., pp. 46-54.

[9] Ibid., pp. 83-86.

But how can a teacher keep up with the infinite possibilities and the unpredictable demands that are inevitable in such an unrestricted atmosphere? Really, there is no need for despair--it actually can be done gracefully. The recommended design for case-action learning makes it feasible for a teacher to identify literally dozens of potential cases and to engage in reasonably relaxed, panic-free advance planning in readiness for that anticipated magic moment when a group will suddenly bubble over into spontaneous action and commit themselves resolutely to a particular challenge with an excited "Let's do it!"

In summary, it may be said that case-action learning can reflect the natural beauty of childhood as proudly and as faithfully as well-designed subject matter represents the logical beauty of the disciplines. Case-action learning can be a thoroughly appropriate vehicle for a child-centered, action-oriented approach to curriculum. And something else: case-action learning can be a lot of fun. Yes, we can have group spontaneity--by the case.

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INTEGRITY, EDUCATION, DANCE

Naoma Rowan

In a variety of cliches, it has often been said that the body doesn't lie. "Actions are louder than words." If someone speaks of lightning, yet at the same time slumps over like a lump of boiled spaghetti, the words are less than believable.

Imaging is often thought of as the act of calling up mental pictures. However, imaging can be a more total process. A curved hand may image an orange, a grape, or a huge balloon, depending on how the hand is curved. The curve of the hand represents the object symbolically.

It is the thesis of this paper that children need many opportunities to "act on" imagery, to do much "body imaging," as a way of progressing toward the ability to think in the abstract, which, in turn, is a skill necessary for success in reading and other academic subjects. Activity related to "body imaging" is also a modality for developing integrity in the child. Integrity is defined here as congruence between action and ideas.

Children find many opportunities to develop the skill of imaging in play, and the rules of the play are expressed in the child's ability to make-believe with real conviction. The marbles that are in the little pan on the play stove must be treated as real eggs; trains don't get off the tracks and kick up their wheels. Remaining "in character" is part of the game. It is the part of the game which defines integrity for the child.

Children are not born with the ability to visualize. Object permanence is usually acquired within the first few months of life, but visualizing requires much more time. Consider the difficulty some adults have

when they are expected to translate directions given verbally into a cognitive map. Mapping space in one's mind requires an integration of language and perception.

Among other ways, children learn to visualize through play. The following incident illustrates the difference between a child who has integrated language with his visualizations, and one who isn't as far along in the process. Think of two little boys with airplanes in hand. Child No. 1 says, "My reconnaissance plane is revving up. We're going out to look for the 'emeny.' The 'emeny's' dug in." To his friend, he says, "You say, 'Control tower to pilot. Control tower to pilot. Prepare for take-off!'" Instead of acting on the suggestion, the second youngster also pretended to have a plane. Going through the same motions, he said, "Brrrp! Brrrrp! Brrrrp! Prrrrrrr..... Wheee, eeee, Oooooo, Eeeee.... Brrrop! Brrrrop! Poom! Pooom!"

The first child was persistent; he continued his interaction, "Pilot to tower. Pilot to tower. The reconnaissance plane is taking off. Here it goes. The radar is turned on. Prrrrr....! Pilot to tower. We have a blip on the screen. Over....!"

Which child gave us the evidence? The first child's language let us know that he was using visual imagery to assist him in his play. He was also visualizing and planning the play for his little friend. For the second child, the sounds he was making may have been nothing more than imitating the noise of the plane. This is not to say that the second child didn't know about planes, but there was a decidedly different quality in the first child's play. He developed a plan, and his plane functioned within a context of relationships. In all likelihood, he saw the play before he acted it out.

People visualize differently. Some people make very detailed pictures in their minds. Undoubtedly the NASA planners of the moon shots in Houston visualized vividly and in detail. Experiential background contributes greatly to the quality of one's visualizing. Check yourself to see what kind of imagery the following story calls to mind.

A farmer, having bought himself a new hunting dog, took him out to the lake for a trial run. He shot a duck and the dog walked out on the water and brought it in. The farmer blinked, rubbed his eyes, and tried again with the same result. Puzzled about the dog, the farmer invited a neighbor to hunt with him the next day. The same thing happened. When either man hit a bird, the dog would walk out on the water and retrieve it. The neighbor appeared not to notice. And the farmer said nothing for a while. Finally, he couldn't stand it and asked, "D-did y' notice anything unusual about my dog?" The neighbor scratched his head, "Yeah," he said at length, "Yeah, come t' think of it, I did. The son-of-a-gun can't swim.'"

What happened? Did you picture a dalmation? A pointer? Or a Laborador retriever? Could you have pictured a little French poodle who didn't want to get her feet wet? Was the water in your picture calm or rough? Was it deep or shallow? Were there cat-tails or other weeds around? Trees in the distance or foreground? Mountains? What kind of ducks? Your visualizing depends partly upon what kind of an observer you are - what your past experience has been - what things you screen out - what things you allow in. You may visualize in detail at some times, meagerly at others. People, hearing such a story, usually begin to image the situation in their minds. The punch line tends to come as a surprise, disintegrating the imagery suddenly, which is the probable cause of our laughter.

Visualizing is not only part of "getting the joke," it is an important part of reading, particularly early reading. Some years ago, when I was teaching first grade, I was listening to a youngster read -- David. He dropped words, plink - plink - plink, like a leaky tap. As I listened, I hoped that I would hear him string his words together like a necklace of pearls, because it is only as words are strung together that the child gets any meaning out of what he is reading. For example: "He." What does it mean? A male something-or-other. "He broke only three." Three teeth? Three dishes? What does it mean? You can't really know until those words, that sentence, are said in relation to other words and sentences. The meaning is derived from the total context, plus what experience and interpretative ability that the reader brings to the printed page.

It hadn't happened for David, so I stopped the word-calling and asked him what kind of pictures he was making in his mind as he read. "What do these words make you think of, David?" "Nothing," he replied. So I said, "Then you must have been thinking of something else while you were reading. Tell me, what was it you were thinking of? His answer, "When my Daddy took me on a subway train in New York City."

The child was visualizing, but the words in the book were not calling up the mental pictures. When the substituted images are as compelling as a ride on a subway, the content of the story has to be fairly exciting in order to pull the child in to the task at hand.

During the past year, I have conferenced with the parents of three children whose reading problems were partly a result of the fact that they didn't know they were supposed to visualize what they were reading. They didn't understand that saying the word was not enough; they had to

mentally ACT ON those words, to image, to interpret, to bring meaning TO the context.

One child was in first grade - the oldest of five children - and while his mother read to him on very rare occasions, she had very little time to do so. One of the other mothers labeled herself as a non-reader. In all three instances, the children had been read to very little or not at all. They came to school, not knowing what to expect in reading, and when they were introduced to it through phonics, they simply thought it was making the right sound for the letters. Another of the children had gone as far as third grade and was able to call out all of the words he came to phonetically, but in tests, he fell down to almost nothing on comprehension. The third child was in fifth grade. He had seemed to show some promise in the first two grades, but had been dropping back rather than making progress in reading. The content of his day-dreaming on one occasion was a hunting trip with his father. It seems that emotional needs that have not been met can easily entice a child into out-of-field imagery or fantasizing. Comprehension requires that the reader stay with it; the content of the material needs to have some holding power, not only for the child, but for the teacher as well.

How many other children are having difficulty with visualizing? It is hard to say. There are times when I look at the world in which children are growing up, and I feel that they have less opportunity to learn to visualize. They are hurried, pressured, frightened, enticed, seduced, and given ready-made toys for play. Instead of radio dramas, for which we had to supply our own mental images, the radio now confines itself to music or advertizing. And television supplies the images for the viewer, which may be a mixed blessing allowing children to become information-rich but

experience-poor. A relationship exists between the child's ability to create adequate imagery and his ability to comprehend what he is reading. It is one of the child's ways of ACTING ON the content. What that relationship is statistically, I don't know, but there are data indicating that children, who have been taught in mechanical ways without compelling content, also fall down in comprehension.[1]

Many times during the year, schools have parents and children who move in from some other area. A common question goes like this, "In our old school, my child was reading in book 14 of such and such a series. Do you teach from that series, and do you have a group he will fit into?" The answer to that question is easy. I would like to propose a harder one for parents to ask of the schools -- something like, "What kind of assurance can you give me that my child will gain a real understanding of what he reads, that he will become mentally active under your tutelage, a truly productive thinker?" "What do you do in your schools to stimulate children to become something other than sponges?"

It is understandable why parents ask the questions they do. Being on page 34 of book 14 is something that one can easily see. Whether or not a child is visualizing is not as easy to see. You never really know how much is taking place. Checking it out sometimes means that one must have time for individual interviews with children; one must pick it up incidentally from non-verbal cues, as in play or dance; one must recognize when words are dropped meaninglessly. It cannot be observed during silent reading. The right kinds of questions may yield an inkling that visualizing is going on. It is a skill that is used in many school subjects. In math, one proof that a child is visualizing comes in his ability to make transformations in very practical, demonstrable situations.

The successful student uses visualizing as an important tool for learning. The student, who is turned-off psychologically, can refuse to learn by refusing to visualize. Or it may be unintentional, "My mind just went blank when he started talking about fractions."

Teachers need many more situations where children must visibly and/or verbally act on what they are learning in order for us to know that the youngsters are not "copping out" intellectually. Creative dance is a beautiful way for teachers to help children act on visual imagery called up dramatically and vividly through language or first-hand experience. Not only does the child of dance need to call images to mind; the child needs to maintain them, organize them, and transport them through time and space.

The child who holds a piece of plastic yardage crumpled tightly in his hand, then opens his hand to watch it unfold, has created an image which he can symbolize in his body's own unfolding and stretching. From the plastic, to the body movement, to the abstract notion of unfolding is an image-assisted progression.

To illustrate the visualizing developed in children in creative dance, here are excerpts from a class period observed just before Christmas. The teacher told the children about looking out her window one morning to see a deer that was out in the orchard near her place. She described the feet of the deer, how they were lifted high as it moved in the snow, the flowing grace with which the animal bounded from one spot to another. Then she said to the children, "I want you to let go of the regular part of you, and BE like this deer. See if you can really capture the whole spirit of the moment. You will BE THIS FEELING with every motion that you make. If you can capture the spirit of that deer, you will feel the joy of its grace

and movement. If you don't try with your whole body, you won't feel as much joy as you really could:"

"First I want just a few of you to try. It may be difficult to hold on to the idea with other people watching. But get yourselves ready - forget about us - and when you have that feeling throughout your entire body, you can start."

The children danced that deer, with leaps, with bounds, with height, and grace, and openness.

The teacher then asked the others, "What made them believable?"

And a child answered, "When you think so much about what you are doing, all your feelings help you do it."

Talking about a child who had really demonstrated the idea beautifully, another child said, "Even when he stopped, he still looked like a deer." And the teacher responded, "When he stopped, he kept on thinking and believing."

To the children who had been the audience, she then said, "Now I'd like to see if you can believe so much! get yourselves so psyched-up with the idea! that your movement, your feeling, the time changes -- all of it will make it believable for the rest of us."

It's a rare moment when children spontaneously applaud each other. On that day, it happened.

Evaluating with the children, the teacher commented on an unusually lovely performance, "When I watched her leap, it was so light and so beautiful. You could tell that she was thinking so much about her idea that it erased the fact that people were watching."

"There were some children whose indecision, at first, looked like wiggles and worms, but as they had more time to move, to be still, to

think again, they began to move with certainty - not indecision - and as the idea and the feeling took hold of them, they seemed to make the whole room feel very strong and alive. Your indecision makes you look weak, but when you really give yourselves to the idea, you will look, feel, and act in such a way that it will come through."

The beauty that took place had not happened in one class period. The children had been developing skills for months, among them the skill of visualizing. This skill had been brought to such a point that the children were not making little pictures in their minds alone; they were visualizing with their bodies, with their feelings, with their totalities. Creative dance offers extraordinary opportunities for visualizing to be developed in total and joyous ways. What power it gives the children over their feelings and their minds. It is the totality of this visualizing which develops one of the most cherished characteristics that we see in people - INTEGRITY. Defining integrity as the courage and the ability to think, feel, and act in a consistent, honest, believable way, then a person acts in a way that is congruent with what he says, feels, and believes. The inner and outer person are compatible.

How do children learn to live with integrity? By actually experiencing congruence in a total way, as they did in the dance session just described, by finding that integrity is valued, as it certainly was in this situation. There are other ways, but none more beautiful.

Integrity has been looked upon as an admired and desirable characteristic. The term also applies when a person with hostile feelings acts in hostile ways. Such a person is showing congruence and honesty. It becomes apparent then, that integrity needs to be taught or nurtured in friendly, compassionate, strong, and beautiful circumstances if we want the kind of

integrity that is valued. It is only then that the integrative process is compatible with the needs of the world. Why teach integrity through dance? Because children are naturally action-oriented. Because beauty and integrity should be partners. Because dance evokes more adult-approval than play. Because teachers too, need to feel a sense of aesthetic achievement. And because, apparently for children dance and other forms of movement stimulate the proprioceptive receptors which in turn are interpred as joy and delight in the pleasure center of the brain. Why dance? Because of the discipline in the movement and the need in this world for creative, caring children.

It is easy to ignore the creative hunger of children, but as we supply children with the opportunity to be creative -- to act like persons who know how wonderful they are and can be, we lessen the motivation for inhumane acts. If we live beautifully with children today, we can expect and believe in a beautiful tomorrow. Things don't happen until people catch the vision of what could be; then they can put their energy and enthusiasm into the dream. Children need to learn how to visualize the kind of world they would like to live in, to hold that image, to work in ways that will assure its realization. If we do nothing about planning the future, we must take what comes. If we plan the future and work toward the realization of our plans, therein lies our freedom, our opportunity to take part in the determination and creation of tomorrow. In dance, children visualize; they plan; they put energy into the realization of the plan; they evaluate and grow. They experience the prototype of creation in the form of beauty. All this, and it is called an educational frill. For some, perhaps, but for others the arts are an integral part of education.

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HUMANIZING THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Blaine H. Moore

Language is for others. Someone else puts words in front of other words. They play with words. Creativity is a born gift, either you have it or you don't. I don't. I was born to be an absorber of language. And yet from the Newson Report:[1]

> "This matter of communication affects all aspects of social and intellectual growth. There is a gulf between those who have, and the many who have not sufficient command of words to be able to listen and discuss rationally; to express ideas and feelings clearly; and to even have any ideas at all. We simply do not know how many people are frustrated in their lives by inability ever to express themselves adequately; or how many never develop intellectually because they lack the words with which to think and reason. This is a matter as important to economic life as it is to personal living, industrial relations as well as marriages come to grief on failures in communications. . . .
>
> There is no gift like the gift of speech and the level at which people have learned to use it determines the level of the companionship and the level at which their life is lived."

If this is true and it appears to be so, then ought we not be involved in developing the ability to communicate with our fellow beings and further, this ability should not be restricted to those few whom society has labeled as creative.

How does the present curricular structure approach the process of teaching the language arts? Reading is the number one target. We all know how significant reading is to the other content areas, in fact it is the key to scholastic survival. We do not have time for children to talk, write, or become involved in creative drama because reading is not coming along, and so the time is spent on reading. And reading is not coming along because we neglect the other language arts.

During the 1960's millions of dollars were spent on research trying to determine which reading programs were more effective with children. Conclusions were reached, but not the expected ones, for the only significant conclusion reached was that the teacher was a more significant factor in reading growth in children than any one method or approach. Very possibly we should spend time training teachings in processes of learning rather than in content methods.

Writing has followed a continuous path since the 1700's. It was a prescriptive approach consisting of diagramming sentences, filling in blanks, trying to locate the parts of speech, writing complete sentences that were punctuated with small red scribblings all over the margins. English teachers were like Gods, noting progress on paper in various re-writes akin to the stages of re-incarnation. It is somewhat like corn growing. For years the width of the corn row has been thirty-eight inches. We have since found that more corn can be grown by narrowing the width of the row. Research into the history of corn growing revealed that the thirty-eight inches represented the width of the horse's rump. A leading question could be, how many horses' rumps have you and I been following while cultivating the minds of children?

All writing basically was directed toward the teacher as the audience. The children, not having a real purpose for writing other than to please the teacher, wrote only for that purpose. Other distractions for the child were the prescribers contained in the texts. You remember the language--'Now when you write a friendly letter you must keep these three rules in mind,' etc.. The child is so concerned about the three prescriptions that he can't concentrate on the message to be written. In an artificially prescribed

and contrived situation is it any wonder why children can't and don't write well and worse, do not have any desire to write at all.

Attempts have been made to teach the child to read and to write, but little has been done with the spoken word. It is as though we have an unwritten banner over the front door of the school for those entering to apply. It reads, "All ye who enter herein, please be quiet, don't talk." It is spoken in plainer words by the prestige figure inside, "Tim, would you turn around and shut up!!" Ignoring the concept that language has an oral base, we as teachers spend all our time expecting the child to listen to our spoken language, supressing that which could support reading and writing the most. Wilkinson[2] implies that the very structure of the classroom precludes the development of communication. In the typical classroom, the presiding figure is in the front, with the "low prestige figures seated in rows." Communication flows only one way. The teacher has the answer and that is the only answer possible. Communication cannot be developed under those circumstances.

Checking the listening activities becomes a puzzle, for a realization is gained that they are not listening activities at all but thinking activities as applied to listening. Not much time is spent in school participating in Glasser's[3] "Golden Circle" where children struggle with a real -- relevant problem, giving and taking in dialogue that precipitates oral speech and necessitates listening. An idea is tested in open forum, and thinking is modified like a balloon in the air where people can shoot at it. If the idea is good, it stands fire; but most need patching in a process where we change our thinking and thus learn the procedures for learning.

Expansion of knowledge has made "covering" the subject insurmountable. Content teaching has created a student who is a passive sponge. Some students learn to read, but studies indicate that ninety-five percent of the books are read by five percent of the populace.[4] Children can't speak in the classroom and they hate to write. It appears that there is a need for a new base for developing the skills of communication which so affect our lives. An experience-based curriculum with oral language at the support level seems to offer one approach to the problem.

The philosophical foundation for this approach has support in the writings of Jennings,[5] Moffett,[6] Warner,[7] Van Allen,[8] and the McCrackens.[9] Of the four literacy skills, two are productive and two are receptive. The production of language is much more difficult than the reception. One is active and the other passive. It follows, then, that the student should spend proportionally more time in producing rather than the receiving of language. Moffett suggests that a course in language is basically a course in thinking. "Conceiving and verbalizing must be taken together. The stuff to be conceived and verbalized is primarily the raw stuff of life, not language matters themselves."[10]

The sequence of language development through an experience approach is one where thinking precedes listening, with listening preceding speech and then from the oral base writing and reading evolve. Frank Jennings'[11] definition of reading supports this base. He projects that "Reading begins with wonder at the world about us. It starts with repeated events like thunder and lightning and rain. It starts with the seasons and the growth of things. It begins when the mother, holding the child's hand, says that a day is 'beautiful'

or 'cold' or that the wind is soft . . .. Reading is the practical management of the world about us . . .. The special kind of reading you are doing now is the culmination of all the other kinds of reading. You are dealing with the signs of things represented. You are dealing with ideas and concepts that have no material matter or substance and yet are real."

The key here to me seems to be in the statement, "signs of things represented." Experience is a major source for developing symbolism. Words are the prime representation of experience. These symbols fall into two broad classes, function words like: to, and, because, the, this; and symbolic words like: hot, cold, bird, cat, rough, and love. If the child has not had an experience relative to the symbol then the representation has no meaning. If he has not spent considerable time stringing words together then the function words are not used. The young child eliminates these function words all together in utterances like "Billy drink?", or "Tommy hurt!". Andrew Wilkenson[12] suggested that if we were asked to write a very brief book on the teaching of English, that it could be condensed to three words, the "verbalization of experience." He further stated that if it was necessary to cut the text to one word, that word would be "experience." So English teaching is getting the students to put what they have experienced into words. The experiences are all the things that have happened to you: getting lost, falling down, getting embarrassed, smelling the grass, watching it grow, blowing bubbles, sharing a story, being loved or being hated. For both the creative artist and the child, writing is "an excited response and an organization of experience." We have, as teachers, all become so involved in objectives and skills that we have lost track of the central

activity. "Now the trend in English teaching is to switch to the centrality of experience so that the skills emerge in the process of verbalizing the experience, they don't have the status of immediate goals. The experience is the thing one starts with." It may be skills we want but they don't seem to come when approached directly because the skill becomes the goal instead of the production of language. You need to write about something to someone.

The teaching process is one of creating or structuring situations in which the production of language is a "natural outcome." The skill in teaching is to be able to read the child. This reading of the child can only be accomplished by a teacher who is well grounded in the skills of the content that she is attempting to teach. After diagnosing the communicative abilities of her student, the teacher then structures a trial with language in a real situation with a genuine audience. The child plunges into the experience, writing or speaking because he has something to say to someone. He makes errors because he is learning. He shares his language production, oral or written with an audience. Heeding the feedback from his audience, he corrects problems where his communication has broken down. The corrections are not offensive to him as the teacher-made marks would be to you and me, because he had something to say and he didn't get his message across. Changes in his work are needed to accomplish his goal. Thus skills emerge and growth takes place because each trial, that is structured by the teacher, is relevant and increasingly more challenging. Errors are not despised, for by overcoming errors the student is able to communicate effectively with the audience. Who is the audience? For the student, the most relevant audience is his peers. The most immediate question asked is,

"How can peers give effective critique?" It is suggested that anyone can mark on a paper such things as, 'I don't follow you.' 'This is not clear.' 'You said that before.' 'Where are you going?' or 'This doesn't do anything for me.' And what about spelling and punctuation, ah, those fifteen or fifty rules for the comma. Let's put mechanics in their proper perspective. The message is the thing of value, not the clothing that it comes dressed in. In fact, if punctuation is approached in an oral fashion, communication will only flow if the commas are in the correct place. But students can be critics if given some simple criteria: 1. Was what you wrote or said interesting to me? 2. Did I understand what you were saying? 3. Where didn't the message come through? Here is where the teacher expertise comes through, for she is a source of help in overcoming errors in communication that students have raised. The student can be sent to a text where he can practice or drill on specific needs. The text is a source of help not a source of agony in irrelevance.

This type of writing, speaking, and reading is parallel with the development of the human being. We are involved in those experiences and ideas directly related to our environment. As we mature we can extend the distance between ourselves and our audience. The process also moves from the concrete to the abstract. So here am I, discussing a theoretical base for language development to an audience that is unable to give me feedback because of the situation or who would hesitate because they don't want to hurt my feelings. I have moved from egocentrism toward a distant audience.

As I view this type of curriculum, a series of relevant structured trials with language rather than a sequence of language skills to be hacked at, certain attributes seem to come in focus. The

child learns to write, talk, read, and listen by doing it. There is a difference between doing and describing. He has desire to write because the content is relevant and the audience is real. It is individualized in its instructive process because the student works on those skills that he has not mastered as they were discovered in a structured trial. The process is not text centered, it is experience centered. It is not teacher centered, it is student centered. It is a natural process for a student to write and read and talk and listen about ideas drawn from his experience. The greatest benefit is that the child is actively drawn into the learning process by doing. He learns to write by writing, to read by reading, to speak by speaking and to listen by listening, and the beauty is that all the communication skills are related in a functional setting. Language arts can be the most exciting time of the day for it deals with the content that differentiates between man and animal and specifies that which extends the mind of man.

In conclusion everything has been researched. The assertions that have not been scrupulously researched or personally attested have been lovingly invented.

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POETRY - A MEDIUM FOR PERSONALIZING EXPRESSION

Barbara Ann Howell

In the field of education today we often feel that individualizing education means that every child must be performing a different task from that of the other children in the classroom. I feel we can meet individual needs also in total group activities. Children need to be accepted by their peers and to have an opportunity to express themselves in front of their peers. This gives a teacher an opportunity to help to build the individual child's self concept in the presence of others. Poetry is the medium used in this presentation to accomplish this purpose.

The delightful experience of helping children discover and express their own personal creative ideas is most rewarding.

The uninhibited imaginations of the very young are fertile grounds for seeds of thought to grow and flower into beautiful creations.

Each child has something of value to say and the sensitive teacher will find a way to help him express his most secret thoughts.

Listen with wonder and amazement as I have to the words of children.

"The atmosphere has run a long way today - listen to him panting."

- by Laura

and

The Poor Man

- written by a deaf child

There was a poor man
Who could not see.
His face was tan
He had a crooked knee.

He dragged his foot,
His head was bald,
He slept in soot,
"Poor man," he's called.

The man was sad,
He cried & cried,
Then he went mad
and finally died.

The purpose of this presentation is to provide a program about poetry that first helps teachers learn to listen objectively but uncritically to the ideas of children and secondly to give children with a wide variety of learning capabilities, opportunities and encouragement to express their ideas verbally and in written form.

Poetry must be expanding to the child's mind, therefore, should not be stiffled by structure; but a child also needs to know and understand some of the basic forms and ideas in poetry to use as tools for expression.

This presentation will be divided into four parts - first- limericks, second- rhymes, third- free verse, and fourth- methods of stimulating children to continue to write poetry. Throughout all four areas of discussion there will be introduced ideas for teachers, to stimulate, encourage and involve children.

Some children may be "turned off" by the idea of writing poetry so we begin with sharing, listening and talking about poetry. Limericks though more difficult in rhythm and structure are interesting and stimulating to most children because of the humor and nonsense words used in the composition. Limericks are so flexible that children become involved easily without the threat of error, so we begin with limericks.

Limericks are fun and call for a special place. A "quiet corner" or "rug area" are ideal places to take off shoes, sit on the floor and enjoy each other's ideas. The teacher also can show involvement by removing shoes.

Children listen and think, as the teacher reads limericks. They discover that a limerick is composed of two long rhyming lines, two short rhyming lines and a fifth line that rhymes with the first.

Children are developing auditory training skills, making word family associations, and becoming aware of spelling similarities.

The group then begins orally to make up limericks. Everyone has something to contribute; a line, a word, or a whole limerick. The teacher shows obvious delight. The sensitive teacher will use this opportunity to praise a reticent child, and commend those patterns of response that are to be exemplary. At the peak of excitement and involvement the teacher spreads a big piece of chart paper on the wall or floor and the class writes a group limerick, and another, and another, and another.

As some children express the desire to write their own poetry they take their seats and work individually.

Hopefully, all children will write independently, but realistically, some will not. These children may write with a partner or small group. It is desirable to have a bulletin board where the poetry can be displayed. Poetry can be taped so the child can listen to himself reciting his own poetry. A child with learning difficulties can often excel in creative written expression if he can be convinced that his work will be acceptable. The philosophy that an original creation is a personal and prized possession and a great accomplishment, is often a determining factor in the ability of some children to risk expressing themselves among their peers. The child must decide if he wants his work to be read to the class, and also if he wants it to be put on the board. He is learning skills of discrimination. "Is this the best I can do?" "Is it good?" He must make these judgements.

"Is my punctuation correct?" It is fun to select a poem, with permission of the child, that has not been punctuated and read it out loud. The class can put in the punctuation marks as the teacher reads. More and more punctuation marks begin to appear in the poetry. The child asks, "Is my spelling correct?" "Is the penmanship neat?" There, he is learning to evaluate his own work.

As the children are working, the teacher walks around the room, encouraging children by her remarks. "That is certainly neat writing." "Oh, I love that word you've used, James. May I interrupt you just a minute, class, to hear this word. Have you ever heard of a prickley cat? That's a very good word, James, and it certainly creates a picture in my mind of that cat. I hope you'll read the whole poem to us when you've finished." or "Oh, what an interesting pattern for rhyming you have, Grace, listen to how she has rhymed 'family' with 'run to me.'" That's very unusual and good. Would you like to read the whole poem to us?" A teacher must always respect the view that poetry is a very personal creation and never betray a child by reading his work without his consent, or insist on his reading it to the group. The child may be required to do his best work, but until he wants to should not be required to turn it in or read it to the class. This way children evaluate their own work without threat of failure. If the child doesn't wish to read his poem out loud the teacher may respond to a negative answer by saying, "When you have one ready to read to us will you let me know?" There is no right or wrong, only what one accepts of himself.

Naturally every class has some children who are less capable. Less interested and less confident than others. These are the children that usually show the most change in attitude and participation. At first the shy, slow or emotionally disturbed child will be slow to respond, but a

teacher who cares what a child has to say will soon have every child responding. Children with discipline problems become involved. The show learner becomes involved, as does the shy, quiet child. Praise over a new word, or interesting meter or unusual idea will spur a child on to more interesting words, meters, and ideas. It's much like watching a flower unfold in the spring. It grows and grows and grows, and so do the self concepts. When the children are ready they will all get together and share their poetry. It is a wonderful experience for people to learn to share and exhange ideas. To be able to listen to the idea of another and respect it, and make a constructive comment is a talent to be developed in young children. Soon children are clamouring to have other children talking about their ideas.

This is only the beginning of limerick fun. Dance a limerick, sing a limerick, clap a limerick. Right now let's listen to some original limericks, written by children.

There was an old man with gun.
Used to make people run.
Till one day, said he
someone might shoot me.
That funny old man with a gun.
- by Lonnie

Ed is the name of a flower I know,
And he is feeling very low.
"He's broken a limb,"
Dr. said so grim
That poor little flower I know.
- by Jerry

In summary, we first talked about a pattern for setting up a poetry program beginning with limericks. The pattern was:

1st set the atmosphere,

2nd listen,

3rd discuss,

4th write

5th share,

and secondly we talked about ways teachers can become involved with children.

We will use the same pattern for poetry as we go into the next two areas.

RHYMES

Now the children are involved in poetry, we are going to change to the couplet form of poetry in which several rhythmic patterns can be used, ending in rhymes. Reading poetry to children is vital. We usually return to the "quiet corner" for poetry, as this designates it as being a special sharing time. The teacher selects something simple that the children are familiar with, to begin. Mother Goose rhymes are good and the children can recite most of them. The teacher then introduces a wide variety of poetry written in couplet form. Children begin to pick out the rhyming words. They clap the rhythms of the poetry with emphasis on the rhyming words. Here some beginning skills of sylabication are developing. Children are becoming aware of different forms of poetry structure and they have a basis for comparison now. Usually some child will comment on a poem in which every other line rhymes, and another facet is added to writing rhymes. Alternating rhymes. The teacher reads poetry to the children constantly throughout the unit.

The class then moves to an area in the room where they can use a blackboard. The teacher writes a word on the board. A simple word such as man. The students volunteer rhyming words such as van, can fan, ran, which rhyme and these are written on the board. This can also be done as a game with teams competing to see who can list the most "man" words. Then the children write a class poem using as many of the "man" words as possible. Very simple beginnings involve everyone and give even the slowest student an opportunity to participate.

Children are developing spelling skills - they are becoming more aware of word family similarities and also aware of word differences when the words sound alike but are spelled differently as in the words "time" and "rhyme" or "eight" and "date." Children are increasing their vocabularies, as some children will make rhyming words by sound alone such as lan and ban, and a discussion follows about "Is that a real word and what does it mean?" Often children must refer to a dictionary to justify a word they have chosen. Thus dictionary skills increase. Of course, reading skills are continuously increasing as they see, hear, write, and use more and new words.

The teacher provides many opportunities for the children to verbalize their ideas before they write. They are now ready to write their own poetry and usually for the first few times the teacher suggests some topics. It's easier for the child to begin with some suggestions until he gains more confidence in his ability to write. Spring, snowflakes, seasons and horses are some fairly good ones to suggest.

Again the teacher becomes very much involved in the action - encouraging, praising, suggesting and helping.

A problem may arise as the teacher moves around the room; with children asking for words to be spelled. If the teacher stresses the importance of getting a good idea down on paper before it is forgotten and correcting the spelling words later, the child produces much more creative and interesting poetry. These poems are practice exercises and may be written several times before the poet is satisfied. Then he can get out his dictionary and check the spelling and perfect his penmanship to prepare his work to be put on display, or in a notebook. The child will often illustrate his own poetry. Then children will get together in small groups or as a total group and read

their poetry to each other. It is absolutely delightful to watch the exchange of ideas among the poets, gathered in the corner as they read. Listen to the rhyming poetry of children:

THE OCEAN
- by Jennifer

The sea almost seems to say,
Hurry and come swim my way.
Come and sail a little boat,
And maybe write a secret note.
I went down to the shore that day,
And did the things it seemed to say.
But do you know, nothing seemed to turn out right,
Even though I tried very hard day and night.
Everything he said to me had to do with him, the sea.

HAWKEYE
- by Bill

There was a British pioneer,
Who lived with the Delawares since he was a year.
Hawkeye was his adopted name,
He had a wolf which was very tame.
A musket was his very own gun,
He worked very hard way out in the sun.
The Mingoes hated Hawkeye,
One day they decided he must die.
But since he was a very good shot,
He killed thirteen Indians at one spot.
But they did not give up right yet,
They fought till he was captured at sunset.
They tied him by a gigantic fire,
Their hearts were filled with lots of desire.
But when they were about to throw him in,
A bullet hit a Mingoe's chin.
The British came riding fast,
They shot twenty-seven Mingoes and chased off the last.
But Hawkeye was lying very still,
Though he didn't look at all ill.
Then he took a very deep breath,
And died a very peaceful death.
They took him to a far away cave,
And made him a beautiful grave.

The children now have two tools of structure. Limericks and rhyming in couplet and alternating forms. The teacher is experiencing great pleasure exploring, reinforcing, and encouraging the children.

We have again used the pattern for poetry. We have set the atmosphere using quiet corner and the blackboard areas. Then we listened, discussed, wrote and shared, and tried some additional ways to involve teachers. Now we're ready to move into phase three - free verse.

MUSIC

Children are rhyme oriented. Poetry implies rhyme to rhythm to most children, so we have started our unit in an area of the known and are now going into an area of the unfamiliar. This will be called free verse or flexibly structured poetry.

Children are gathered around the board. The teacher writes a simple sentence. Perhaps, "A cat sat on the fence." or Another- "The cat sat on the old fence." She explains that these are called picture words. They tell something about another word in the sentence. If the children have had previous experience with nouns and verbs this is a good way to introduce adjectives and adverbs. For younger children they are called picture words. Each child writes the sentence ten times and adds one new word each time. Then they choose the one they like best and share with the class. The variety is amazing and fun. Then every child writes one more sentence and adds ten descriptive words. It sounds something like, "The straggley black old ragged cat sat sprawled on the rickety, splintery, broken-down unpainted fence."

An interesting related game can be played for points, in teams where one team says a word and the other team an adjective. These are good vocabulary builders and lead into the next phase of free verse called picture poetry. We use the Japanese Haiku as a model but do not insist on the 17 syllable count used in this form. In all fairness to the Haiku poets, we call our poetry, "Picture Poetry," but we do use the pattern of natural subject matter, limited to a single idea or statement.

This poetry is more serious than most of the previous poetry we have read, and is more intimate and communicative if the group is together in a small area. Reading the story of the life of the Japanese poet Issa, as written in "Wind in My Hand," is a meaningful way to introduce this poetry. It can be read or told to children and explains the structural aspect and the meaning of this poetry. The life of this man is very interesting and impressive. The beautiful adjectives and adverbs used to describe the natural phenomenon of earth instills in children an awareness and appreciation of their environment. The arranging of words in a stentence opens a whole new scope of expression. One child wrote, "The bee returns to the buzzing nest." How delightful. Most adults would have written, "The buzzing bee returns to the nest." How much buzzier it is, when it comes from the pen of a child.

In the book -"Haiku - The Mood of Earth" by Ann Atwood the author-photographer, has illustrated her Haiku with photos. The teacher has the children close their eyes and listen. As she reads - "musing on a gnarled tree root my mind leaps as a stallion rears up." The children describe the mental picture they perceive. The teacher shows them the author's picture. Children learn that people see things differently. They are learning to accept ideas of others, without being threatened by differences in their own ideas.

The children discuss the feelings they have about this kind of poetry. They create picture sentences verbally with the group and talk about the words, and the feelings they express.

Now they are ready to write. The teacher puts a list of animals on the board and the children write a sentence about each one. If they want to they may choose their own subjects from nature. Listen to the sensitivity

in this poetry written by children.

The sky screams in sadness as tears drop down from his darkened eyes.

- by Laura

The reeds, waving in the evening breeze are giving away their secrets.

- by Laura

Listen to the variety in this free verse, written by children.

THE MEAN FLOWERS

The flowers are mad.
The flowers are sad.
The flowers are bad.
And the flowers are so
mad,
sad,
and bad,
That they'll eat you.

This one by John is entitled:

I AM A MAGIC BROOM AND I CAN FLY

I am a magic broom and I can fly.
I flew past New York,
and flew into the Empire State Building.

I am the Empire State Building, and
A magic broom flew into me.
And broke my window.

I am me,
And a piece
Of grass
Fell on me
And killed me.

I am the ground, and someone
Fell on me.

Now children have had experiences writing three kinds of poetry, limericks, couplet and alternating line rhymes and free verse. Some have written much poetry, some have laborously written only a little, but all have been positively involved in peer group interchange of ideas. All have had experiences with many language development skills. All have learned

something about themselves. They understand a little more about humor, a little more about sadness and a lot more about creative expression.

Now it's time to step into the last phase of stimulating children to continue writing and exploring their own ideas in poetry. Again if the teacher sets up situations that leave a wide range of expressive possibilities and stimulate rather than inhibit thoughts, the children will respond.

A picture of a blue summer clouded sky and ocean waves beating on a rocky shore line with no definite instructions, only a suggestion of "I wonder what it would be like to be a rock, or a cloud, or the water?"

The results?

WATER

I am the water dashing against the rocks.
It is a beautiful day,
The sun is shining on me making me glitter like a diamond.
The clouds are floating by casting shadows on
my blue water.
My water is deep and dark blue but in other
places it is shallow and light blue.
There are hundreds and hundreds of miles of me,
all just as pretty as the other.
Sometimes I get rough when there is a big storm,
My water gets a dark green and
Sometimes I destroy ships against the rocks.
And other days I am calm just like today.

- by Kurt

A teacher might ask, "How do colors smell? How do they taste? How do they feel? How do they make you feel? and the child might respond ---

COLOR

- by Bill, Ann, Bruce, Steven, Jennifer

Black is the color of sadness and war
and the death of a dog.

Silver reminds me of a shining white bird
flying through the clear blue sky.

Black is waking up at 6:00 o'clock. White
is the wisest color of them all.

Brown is cookies, green is a friend, yellow is
a clock ticking, and white is a dream.

YUCKY RED BEET
- by Bruce

You're a yucky red beet,
with orange hair and a green hat.
You're hiding from me but I can see you
because I have three eyes.
You're hiding under zillions of squirmy, slimy,
purple snakes, worms and frogs.
COMP CLOMP CLOMP there I go,
I'm going to get a shovel.

GRAY
- by Lawrence

This morning I woke up and walked right into gray.
Everything was gray.
The sink was gray, my sisters were gray,
The sunshine was gray, my bed was gray.

Well, I'm going to live in gray.
Well, I'm glad school isn't gray.

Now the door has been opened - a little encouragement had a little time for sharing and a whole classroom of poets will emerge as butterflies from the chrysalis. The children in this presentation were in a multi-age grouped classroom from ages 7 to 11. Poetry is a delight at any age and with simple modification this program could be used with any age group.

Time? Anytime, and as long as you wish. Place? Anywhere that a group of children and sensitive teacher are together. For remember, Every child is an individual. Every child has something to say, and Every child needs someone to listen.

LEARNING TO READ SHOULD NOT BE THE PRIMARY PURPOSE OF ELEMENTARY EDUATION

Lynn F. Stoddard

"This [illegible]h for learning to read,
Which let him never be dri[illegible]en to.
Cheat him into it if you can,
but make it not a business for him.
'Tis better it be a year later before he can read
than that he should this way
get an aversion to learning."

John Locke

The great majority of people in our country believe that the primary mission of the elementary school is to teach children how to read. This belief is traditional, long standing and deeply imbedded. To propose any other notion will likely bring a deluge of protest--yet the Utah ASCD Board of Directors feels so much damage is being done because of this belief that we must speak out and do what we can to help people re-examine their beliefs and establish some new priorities for elementary education.

Who, in their right mind, would question the importance of being able to read in our society? Even the President and the United States Office of Education have declared that there should be a national "Right to Read" effort. Nearly everyone is convinced that we should try harder to see that every child learns to read.

Herein lies the problem. Reading may be the most important of all inquiry skills, if learned the right way and if learned at the right time in a child's life. Unfortunately, at the present time in most elementary school classrooms reading instruction is being provided in neither the right way nor at the right time for most children.

In this paper we will describe the urgent need to change the focus or "business" of elementary education. The widespread belief

that reading should be the number one priority of elementary schools is producing several detrimental results:

1. SELF-ESTEEM IS DAMAGED

In recent years there has been a trend to move the beginning of formal reading instruction downward from first grade to kindergarten to pre-school. We now know from the research of Jean Piaget and others that it is futile to involve young children in thought processes which use rules and symbolic reasoning before they can perform these functions. These two mental functions are both required in reading. Piaget's findings reveal that most children cannot internalize and use rules until six or seven years of age. They have not developed a language and concept foundation adequate to begin reading until one or more years later than we heretofore thought. This provides a situation wherein a large percentage of children become "failures" either during kindergarten or within a month after starting first grade--simply because they have not yet developed the mental processes or "structures" necessary for reading.

Self-esteem suffers again in the negative approach we take as elementary schools "diagnose" to identify the things a child can not do, such as read, and then "prescribe" a program to help him overcome his inadequacies. It will take a major shift in the thinking of the general public and some educators to abandon the "what's wrong with you" approach and begin to identify and build upon a person's strengths and interests.

2. CHILDREN LEARN A FALSE CONCEPT

As soon as a child enters school he is subjected to a great array of activities all with one goal in mind--to get him to read as soon as possible. As educators we are so persistent with the constant

barrage of reading instruction that the child soon gets the message that reading is the only or major way to acquire knowledge and wisdom. In many subtle and indirect ways we continually say to the child, "what you think is not very important--you must learn only from the thinking of other people that is written down in books." It is typical, when a child brings an unusual insect to school, for the teacher to say, "Oh, John, what an interesting bug, why don't you go get the encyclopedia and see what you can find out about it."

It is an ironic tragedy in elementary school that the outcome of our effort is much the opposite of what we profess to believe. We say that we want people to have inquiring minds yet, almost from the first day of school, the over-emphasis on reading starts to kill a child's drive to inquire. We forget that reading is only one aspect of inquiry.

Because many primary grade teachers do not have an orientation or inclination toward the processes of science, reading is taught as an end in itself rather than one of many ways togaither information. Only rarely is reading instruction linked to a child's efforts to untangle the mysteries of his environment.

The overall effect of the mad scramble to get every child to read as soon as possible is to destroy a child's confidence in his own observation and thinking as a way to acquire knowledge. We now know that knowledge and wisdom are highly personal things built over a period of time out of an individual struggle for personal meaning. Knowledge cannot be passed on from one person to another in any direct way. In order for a bit of information to become the possession of a person he must run it through his "computer" (thought processes) and decide what this new information means for him personally. With the over-emphasis on reading, children thus get the false concept that

the material in books is factual information rather than someone else's opinion which must be analyzed and carefully considered.

3. OVER-EMPHASIS ON READING DELAYS OR CRIPPLES THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ABILITY TO INQUIRE AND TO REASON

Thanks to Jean Piaget, we know that a child's actions on things are what facilitate the development of his mental structures. At the time a child enters school he is rapidly developing his powers of inquiry and learns through engaging in real actions with tangible objects such as dolls and blocks.

When we take a child out of his world of first-hand contact with real things and substitute books, paper and pencils, as often happens in first grade, and in many kindergartens, we usually cripple the development of thinking. Vicarious experiences cannot take the place of first-hand interaction with the environment, for it is through "hands-on" experiences that children build the concepts and self-awareness that make higher mental processes possible.

By the time a child is five years old he is beginning to discover that he can use himself as an instrument of learning. He wants to hold and examine objects. His curiosity is developing very fast and he inquires about his environment in many ways. Effective kindergartens are sensitive to this need in children but first grade becomes a different story. It is here that we get down to the life-or-death business of teaching children how to read. Reading instruction becomes a time-absorbing activity which crowds out active exploration and manipulation of the objects of the environment. As children progress upward through the elementary school, the situation gets worse and by sixth grade nearly all the learning opportunities provided by teachers are vicarious. Textbooks now dominate the scene

with reading and writing assignments handed out with faithful regularity. By sixth grade the fire of true, self-initiated inquiry, which was beginning to blossom in kindergarten, has been all but extinguished.

John Locke, the great educational philosopher, said one hundred years ago, "This much for learning to read, which let him never be driven to. Cheat him into it if you can, but make it not a business for him. 'Tis better it be a year later before he can read than that he should this way get an aversion to learning." In elementary schools we have done exactly what John Locke warned us not to do--we have made reading our main business, thereby turning children away from the joys of discovery and learning. We now know from Jean Piaget's work that we have done this at the critical time when a child is forming his mental structures through physical and intellectual manipulation of the objects of his environment. Thus, we have unknowingly retarded him in developing three things that make reading possible: A strong motivation to learn, synchronization of the mental-physical functions, and adequate language and concept development.

The foregoing has been an attempt to describe the major problems associated with reading as the number one priority of elementary schols. Up to this point it would be easy for the reader to get the feeling that ASCD opposes the teaching of reading in the elementary schools. Such is not the case. Reading is probably the most important of all inquiry skills, but we have been teaching it out of context--isolated, and separated from a child's need to read. What we urgently need is a new mission for elementary schools--a central purpose which will foster a lifelong thirst for knowledge and

understanding. May we now suggest a new central purpose for elementry education and some new approaches which we feel will result in not only more avid readers, but the development of the total person hungering and thirsting for knowledge and wisdom.

A New Mission for Elementary Schools

There are three major issues which concern us:

1. How can we maintain and build upon the natural zest for learning which most children have when they start school?
2. How can we help children develop a repertory of skills for locating and learning information (including reading), creating and extending information, communicating ideas, and solving problems?
3. How can we help children develop their unique, individual identities, talents, and interests?

We believe that these three problems can only be solved through the adoption of a new primary mission for elementary schools. What we are talking about is more than a lip-service acceptance of a new role for elementary schools, but a genuine, sincere, action commitment to a new set of priorities.

The recent "Designing Education for the Future Project" listed nine goals for the education system of the future. We believe the primary mission of elementary schools should be centered around the first goal of the DEF Project and serve as the focus for two other inter-related priorities:

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1. TO HELP CHILDREN DEVELOP THEIR INQUIRING, CREATIVE MINDS.
2. TO HELP CHILDREN DEVELOP INDIVIDUAL TALENTS, IDENTITY AND FEELINGS OF WORTH AS MEMBERS OF THE HUMAN FAMILY.
3. TO HELP CHILDREN DEVELOP POWERS OF EXPRESSION AND COMMUNICATION.

If we really get serious about implementing these goals there will be some sweeping changes made in our schools. At first

glance it may seem that reading, writing and arithmetic are being pushed aside. In reality, by trying first to develop inquiring-creative minds, the "basic" skills will be learned in their proper perspective--as tools of learning rather than the goals or ends of education. Also failure will be eliminated since reading will come at the right time for each individual child. Even more important, by focusing on the joys of learning new, exciting information, the pressure for learning to read will become an internal need, rather than just something the child's parents and teachers want him to do.

Utah ASCD does not pretend to know all the details of how to bring about this change of emphasis in the task of elementary schools; nor do we know exactly what steps schools should take in implementing a program after educators are convinced it is the right way to go. We do feel that it is urgent that we re-examine our beliefs to see if we really are doing what needs to be done in our schools. Evidence is mounting to suggest that our schools are not as successful as they could be. We believe studies would show that, as we put greater and greater emphasis on reading achievement, there is a resultant increase in signs of student frustration, such as mental illness, dropouts, disruptive behavior and delinquency.

"How then will children learn to read if we change the emphasis from reading to learning through inquiry and creativity?"

What the Teacher Does

One important thing to remember in inquiry-centered teaching is that inquiry is something the student does for himself--not something the teacher does to him. The motivation is already within the student or gets there in response to the way the teacher arranges the learning opportunities.

With traditional teaching the teacher, or curriculum designers, decide what the child is to learn and then the teacher makes an attempt to see that the prescribed material is committed to the memory of the child. Motivation is nearly always external, with the teacher using assignments, grades, rewards, requirements, points, etc., to accomplish the desired objective. By so doing the teacher takes upon himself the responsibility for the child's learning. The child is freed from being responsible for himself since he knows the teacher will apply the proper external pressures or "reinforcements" to see that he moves in the "proper" direction. It is not at all surprising that many children balk when "learning is so unpleasant that we have to be prodded, assigned or rewarded to do it."

In inquiry-centered teaching the teacher arranges or has the children help arrange an interesting environment of real objects and events for the children and teacher to explore, manipulate and wonder about. The teacher then becomes the catalyst for learning by:

a. first becoming a model for the children to follow by being the number one seeker in the class. (How can any child think learning is very important if he never sees his teacher doing it?)

b. helping each child identify learning projects to pursue which are important to him (the child).

c. helping the child evaluate his efforts to gain personal knowledge and understanding.

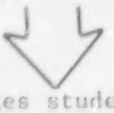
We should try to keep in mind that a child can only reason and analyze at the threshold of his own growing mind. A child, or any person, can only build on the concepts or understandings he already has. This is why the child must do his own seeking. Inquiry involves the thinking processes by which a person gains personal meaning from new information--those processes by which new information is "linked" or connected to the concepts already in a person's mind.

The path to reading skill when the emphasis is on inquiry might look something like the following:

1. The teacher arranges for students to have first-hand encounters with objects, events and people.

2. The teacher encourages manipulation and investigation of the environment.

3. The teacher stimulates students to produce and share thoughts, feelings, or questions about the first-hand encounters. He helps each student find a "quest."



4. The teacher encourages students to perform "experiments" or planned operations on the objects of the environment to aid in observing, weighing, measuring, predicting, etc.. (Gathering Data)

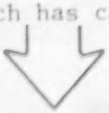
5. The teacher arranges for students to share thoughts, or questions with others verbally and/or with art materials.

6. A child asks for help to write, or dictate for writing, the results of his own thinking.

7. A child reads that which he has written or dictated.

8. The child studies and makes inferences about the mechanics of his own word construction and compares it with what others have written.

9. The child asks for, or shows that he needs help in reading about something which has captured his interest.



10. As the teacher becomes aware of a child's expressed needs he gives specific instruction in word analysis, phonics, etc..

This second sequence (6-10) will also be repeated many times until the child becomes an independent, inquiring reader.

The above description is much oversimplified, but we hope the reader will notice the critical features of learning to read when the emphasis is on developing inquiry:

1. The main goal of the teacher is for the child to develop his inquiring, creative mind--to learn how to learn, not merely to learn how to read. Reading becomes one of the tools of inquiry only if the reader has learned to read with an inquiring, curious attitude. In addition to reading, other important inquiry skills will be developed including: interviewing, observing, analyzing, predicting, classifying, hypothesizing and the ability to ask and pursue significant questions.

2. The responsibility and initiative for learning are left with the student. External rewards are rarely needed since learning is usually sufficient to be its own reward. When external rewards do come they are not the "gimmicks" or artificial reinforcements advocated by some behavior-modification people, but the reward of a teacher really listening and giving honest approval and acceptance to a child and his ideas.

3. The main effort of the teacher is directed toward getting the child to examine and express his own ideas and questions--not merely to find answers to the teacher's questions. The teacher becomes a catalyst for learning through skillful interaction with each child, refraining from giving his answers to children's questions, thus shutting off inquiry.

4. The raw material for learning starts with the real-world environment of the child. The child usually produces his own impressions and inferences before comparing his ideas with those of the authors of books.

5. The sequence for a child learning to read goes from "observing"--to "thinking"--to "talking"--to writing down his "talk"--to reading his "talk"--to reading someone elses' "talk."

You will notice that the inquiry approach for learning how to read is much the same as the language-experience approach familiar to many educators. The chief difference is that reading proficiency for children is not the major goal of the teacher. This is the part that will be most difficult for people to accept and get used to. Old

habits and deep-seated beliefs are extremely difficult to overcome. We believe, however, that careful consideration of this problem will lead parents and educators to similar conclusions. A large number of educators already feel this way but do not know how to get off the treadmill of tradition.

By making reading the "main business" of elementary schools we have done much the same as well-intentioned parents who try to insure good nutrition for their children by prodding them to eat a particular vegetable. The child often develops a long-lasting aversion to that vegetable and sometimes to vegetables in general. In a similar manner, inquiring, creative minds will usually not be developed by "majoring" in reading.

Our schools have produced several generations of people who are "turned off" to learning--large numbers who would rather watch television than use their reading skills for knowledge attainment. Our position is that if we make the development of inquiring, creative minds the main business of schools, children will learn to read plus develop the attitudes and skills of inquiry. Since reading is an extremely important inquiry skill, children will not only learn to read, but they will read to learn. With this new sense of purpose and direction, children will get the right start toward becoming lifelong seekers and learners.

Another aspect of a change of priorities that will be very difficult for some educators and many parents to accept is the delay that will occur in the time that children will begin reading. Since children are normally in the middle of developing their mental "structures" at the time we traditionally start formal reading instruction, our great challenge and opportunity is to nourish the

developing intellect with the right kind of learning experiences at the right time.

We know now that the deep-down urge and intellect to read usually does not occur until one, two, or even three years later than we are used to starting formal reading instruction. We believe this is why studies which compare the effects of various starting times for reading are turning out to show that delayed reading instruction in no way handicaps those who are so treated. By junior high school the late starters can read just as well as those who started early, but they have the advantage of having almost no reading-connected emotional problems.

If we are sincere in the belief that learning to read is only one aspect in the larger, more important issue of developing inquiring, creative minds, we are faced with the problem of helping teachers change to a whole new set of attitudes and behaviors. This will be difficult, but we must begin the task as soon as possible, for a great many children have already been short-changed.

How can we ever accomplish the seemingly impossible task of changing the belief of the general public as to the purpose of elementary education?

It seems to us that educators first will have to become informed and dedicated to this new mission for elementary schools. Then we must find ways to begin a massive public information effort to help people understand what could happen to children with a change of priorities. For, if we really believe that it is important for children to effectively hunger and thirst for knowledge, develop their unique identities, and feelings of worth, their powers of expression and communication, we must start now to match up our behavior with what we say we value most.

Since this position paper shows reading in a new perspective, we have only alluded to the benefits which are possible in other subject areas. A great deal could be said about what might happen if we really start valuing individuality, talent development and the powers of expression and communication. We believe it would be a "whole new ball game." Children, with their unlimited potential for greatness, would seize the new learning opportunities with zest and enthusiasm.

As it stands now the number of elementary school children who are really excited or deeply interested in school are probably in the minority. Many children's feelings range from being apathetic or bored, to being bitterly hateful of school. This is a deplorable situation which can and must be corrected. School should be a joyful, satisfying experience for children and teachers alike. This can happen if we will make the development of inquiring, creative minds our first priority.

If you are convinced that a change is needed in our schools, you owe it to children, to yourself and to society to help start the change process going. We must break the bonds of tradition. As educators we must help people get a new vision of what is possible with the adoption of a different mission for elementary education.

The changes proposed in this paper will not come easy. Teacher training institutions, teachers, and administrators will have to find ways to work together rather than in their various conflicting professional organizations. LET'S GET STARTED!

To Resolve a Dilemma!

Kenneth C. Farrer

The ways we assist another human being in his learnings ought to be defended on the evidence we have about man's cognitive and aesthetic needs. All reasonably healthy people are inquisitive, exploring beings who cannot keep their restless minds inactive. These actions result from the power of man's cognitive and aesthetic needs to know and to feel. Every human encounter seems to be characterized by incompleteness or openness.

Human beings appear to be unable to keep from digging into things, turning ideas over in their minds, trying out new combinations, searching for new relationships, struggling for new insights. I would like to think that most of the teachers I know initiate their work with an awareness of the importance of incompleteness and openness in our lives. One assumption I make is that teachers recognize that students encounter incompleteness outside and inside the classroom and the most powerful form of motivation for achievement is to accomodate and perpetuate this sense of openness in the learning environment. I would like to think of them as knowing that these motivations are ready to be activated in all healthy people and that when learning activities give reasonably good chances for satisfying these motives, then zestful learning usually occurs.

Currently, many school people seem to feel that a child or youth is a mechanism and that learning occurs for him chiefly as a result of something that is done to him from the outside. They build elaborate learning materials and develop intricate methods to evoke the learnings

they desire. They think of teachers as doing the work on the basis of which the youngster learns. They seek ever for a fool-proof method that will work for all youth.

Herein lies one of the dilemmas in our profession.

Lecomte du Nouy wrote a book published by Longmans, Green and Company in 1947 and titled it Human Destiny. He sketched the tremendous innate dynamics of living things to become more complex both in structure and in function. He ascribed to this dynamic the causation of the evolution of living things from the single cell to the most complex organisms. He saw it as accounting for the evolution of behavior problems in different animal species from simple instinctive acts through more and more complex learnings to human reasoning and creativity. In other words, among humans the capacity to learn is inherited and the dynamic desire to learn is an innate property of living and growing. It does not have to be evoked by tricks. It needs only to have the opportunity to occur in situations and ways appropriate to the maturity level of the human individual.

Daniel Prescott, in his work as director at the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland, shared his monumental research studies aided by subventions from the Grant Foundation and reminded his readers that biologists and psychologists alike are suggesting, even urging, that educators can have the faith that this fundamental property of life-processes exists in every child. It is an innate dynamic to become, to realize the developmental potentials, whatever they may be, of that individual. From the texts of his research, he is saying that all children and youth are eager to learn the things that seem significant to

them in the light of their accumulated interaction with the world and with society--that children and youth will work tirelessly to accomplish their own learning goals because they feel within themselves the need to learn, because learning is life realization.

In the late thirties, the American Council on Education set up a Commission on Teacher Education with aid from the General Education Board. What follows is a series of six factors that influence learning resulting from that commission's research and summarized in 1958 by Dr. Prescott as it had been validated by 25,000 teachers in fifteen states. All children's learnings are influenced:

1. by the health, growth level, characteristic rate of energy output, special aptitudes, and disabilities of their bodies;

2. by the climate of love in which they live and by whether or not this climate affords them a basic emotional security;

3. by the specific subcultural elements, within our complex national structure, that they are internalizing through interaction with their parents and with other persons in the communities where they live;

4. by the roles and status they are able to win, and to which they aspire, in the free activities of their age-mates, or peers, in the schools they attend and in the communities where they live;

5. by the concepts of the universe, of the world, and of society which their earlier experiences have engendered; by their concepts of themselves and of their own aptitudes and capacities; by the attitudes and values they have developed as a consequency of the experiences they have had; and by the goals and aspirations they see themselves as being able to work toward in the society they know;

6. by the frequency and the strengths of the strong emotions they are experiencing; by the degree to which they feel physically safe, loved, socially accepted, significant within their communities, and adequate to deal with the situations they are experiencing; by the kinds of adjustive mechanisms they habitually use to manage their emotions and to protect their integrity and self-respect.

Truly a youngster's learning and development depend upon a complex set of dynamics!

Many writers and speakers in educational forums are expressing concern for the tightness with which youngsters' time, materials, and thinking tend to be structured in school. Tightening the structures offered in the learning environment has been one of the responses to the cultural concern for efficiency, excellence, mindfulness, and cognitive values in education.

The result of such tightening, where it has occurred, has often been to add more subjects, to limit the time devoted to any learning task, to remove clay, paint, blocks, and other unstructured materials from the learning environment, or to reduce time available for the learner's experimentation and autonomous productivity, to emphasize learning correct answers or responses and other pressures toward conforming behavior.

Two effects of these pressures have been first, to narrow the possibilities for youngsters to continue to learn how to learn. In some districts it is not permissable now to use the word "play". In the present climate, the value of "play" as educative has been overlaid with confusions about "work" as the legitimate activity in the schools. In play a child is learning to learn. A youngster's involvement in play assists him in testing out ideas, in practicing life activities, in learning words to say and do to order life and clarify concepts. Leland Jacobs, who writes so well about youngsters and teachers, says that we need to find ways to others through words. Dr. N.V. Scarfe (Childhood Education, Vol. 39, p.118) writes that the spirit of play is vital to all humanity: the basis of

most of the happiness of mankind; the means by which humanity advances creatively, scientifically, intellectually, and socially. The spirit of play is vital not only to childhood but to all mankind.

The second effect of these pressures has been to turn the direction of development away from the ultimate goal of education in a democracy--to widen the range and effectiveness of individual choice (riches that arise from the variety of individual uniqueness).

Barbara Biber, teacher turned researcher, (Bank Street Publication No. 67, p. 2) writes that the problem is not whether education is responsible for supplying children with the tools, techniques, knowledge of their culture's present and past, and essential modes of social control and communication; but, that the problem is how skillfully teachers can place these offerings within the developmental sequence that stretches between the phase of exposure and that of mastery, and how relaxed, imaginative, and generous they can be in nourishing and guiding the exposure phase. As she addresses herself to the problem of premature structuring as a deterrant to creativity, she formulates the teacher's task as one of providing the environmental conditions that will maximize openness and induce progression--not to teach the child right and wrong responses, but to program the environment so that the child can discover many things for himself.

Thus, convictions are shared with us of those who have worked prodigiously, thought profoundly, and tested their thinking through the years across disciplines in seminars and conferences. Yet some others would return to another concept of education. Desperate in the search

for short cuts and in the name of accountability, they suggest and even insist upon the use of programmed lessons, packaged and inviolable subject matter, routines of all sorts, centralized authority, and restrictions to the most routine objective of assimilating subject matter, modifying actions to acceptable behavior, questing for practices that work, and for devices that have proven successful.

This kind of reaction, as Herbert Thelen says (Education and the Human Quest, p. 214), "puts education in shackles...the problem is one of means, not ends. And the more efficient the means become, the tighter the bonds are woven; there is no longer room for error, and when, finally, there is no room for error there is no room for insight and discovery."

Research in the 40's and 50's revealed the need for children and youth to work with unstructured materials. It seems even more important, now, when we have so many scientific gadgets and packages (modules, kits, pieces), for us to remember the values of unstructured materials. A gadget that permits only the turning of a handle or a screw through prescription may not have much value as a means by which children may engage, individually and totally, in self-education.

The purpose of this article is to remind ourselves of our responsibilities to provide for youngsters a balance of structured and unstructured materials and problems on which they may grow. They need unstructured situations and materials and they need space, time, and freedom to work with spontaneity, intellectual curiosity, artistry, and imagination.

THE EXCITING PROSPECT OF BEGINNING READING IN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Enid R. Anderson

As we view the position of Early Childhood Education today, we get caught in a maize of programs and philosophy related to the field of Language Arts.

We find nurseries for all ages, free schools, public kindergarten, and many types of private schools such as the Montessori Schools, etc.. Although education has come a long way with many changes taking place, we still lack all the answers. We have advanced from artificial formality and drill to creative endeavor considering Language Arts as a part of a living program, but there is much to be done to develop better ways of communication.

DeBoer writes:

> "We can no longer think of communication as a narrow set of linguistic skills. It is a process which involves ways of living--ways of thinking, of looking at oneself, of adjusting to social situations, of dealing with reality. The communication program of the school should be conceived imaginatively in terms of this new proposition."[1]

It is very important to view the early child as our most precious potential. Although he is bombarded with countless stimuli of media and scientific knowledge, he is still recognized as the prime potential of creativity. Guilford's Model of the structure of the intellect serves as a reminder of the richness and diversity of human thinking abilities and provides the teacher with directives to develop individual potential.[2]

More than half of all five-year-olds attend kindergarten. The Early Childhood program determines the program emphasis, and since

1913, the kindergarten program has been related to the life of the child. Educational activity advocates child involvement and emphasizes the value of play.[3]

"Today many educators view the kindergarten and the nursery school as a downward extension of the primary school. The goals for the nursery school and kindergarten are the goals set for all schooling."[4] The curriculum differences are portrayed by administrators, schools, and teachers and reading programs have gradually filtered into Early Childhood programs as a result of looking at the individual child.

Education lacks the answers as to whether or not reading should become a part of Early Childhood programs. Research states both pro and con discussing such programs; however, as yet, the quality of research is not able to generalize any conclusions with statistical significance.[5]

As individual approaches filter into education, we can only face the reading problem as a reality. Reading programs have become a part of some Early Childhood endeavors. As teachers, we can only view it as to where we are in such programs, decide what we believe, and do as we feel about it.

Whatever our Early Childhood program is, it presents some definite elements that force consideration in our curriculum. Important factors that affect the child in early education are

1. The home
2. Parent education
3. Use of media
4. The teacher
5. Interaction in the community.[6]

This paper discusses the teacher, media input, language development, and factors that influence the child as an early reader.

YOU, THE TEACHER

> "The thing we must learn as teachers is that there is no perfect contribution or perfect material: there is only a PERFECT TEACHER . . ."[7]

You, the teacher, have emerged as the prime catalyst of learning. You are not only teaching children to "learn how to learn," but you are responsible for futuristic impacts of learning. Margaret Mead says:

> "If we can't teach every student . . . something we don't know in some form, we haven't a hope of educating the next generation, because what they are going to need is what we don't know."[8]

The TEACHER and his GOALS are the KEY to learning in the classroom. He produces the climate, provides the resources, plans, guides, directs, facilitates and stimulates. He provides a multitude of ramifications which promote positive self-concepts and motivates academic progress. "The young child learns who he is and what he is from the treatment he receives by those who surround him in the process of maturation."[9]

If we view self-concept and achievement as being interrelated, the child who views himself as successful will in all probability continue to function that way. Alexander says improved self-concept leads to improved achievement. Because of this, the child's behavior, to a large extent, becomes the function of the expectations of others.[10]

"According to Combs and Snugg (1959), teachers can be most influential in developing positive self-concepts within a child by providing a democratic classroom atmosphere wherein each pupil can

think of himself as a responsible citizen . . .. In short, a teacher with positive attitudes can promote a positive classroom atmosphere . . . and if the teacher believes that his students will achieve, then the students will be more successful."[11]

A teacher must be a model. Gesell found that young children tend to imitate a teacher's speech mannerisms. The child models the type of democratic interchange, leadership and discussion portrayed by the teacher. A teacher not only models ways of communication but provides many perceptual and communicative experiences for the Early Childhood participant.

A teacher is a researcher, innovator, facilitator, resource person, curriculum builder, specialist, evaluator, model of inquiry, diagnostician, and prescriptive activator. The teacher also shows that he knows more innovations have been effected in reading in the last fifty years than during the entire three hundred years antedating this period of American history.[12]

The teacher knows when reading instruction should begin and knows the kind, quality, and depth of the reading process he will provide for the child. The teacher knows how to arrange materials and processes within a structure that leads toward individualized learning. The teacher is conversant with beginning reading programs and realizes the place of phonics in the program and is able to take advantage of automated devices that will contribute to the needs of the child. Most important, the teacher must have faith in his own concept of the process, and as he gleans from multi-programs and develops his own individualism, he must have confidence in his selection, and faith in the methods he uses.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE CURRICULUM OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Some factors that affect the curriculum of Early Childhood education are 1) the media input, 2) development of language, and 3) the type of teaching used in the classroom (extent of individualization).

1. Media Input

The use of media is a very important factor in our society. The impact upon the young child is tremendous. "Children love television and because they love it, they learn from it . . .. It is a new challenge to elementary school educators."[13] Children consciously or unconsciously, measure their teacher's performance against TV programs.[14]

Children learn a great deal from television. It is estimated that only sleep surpasses television as the top consumer of time for American school children. During an average year the child thus attends 980 hours of school and watches TV 1,340 hours, so by the time he graduates from school he will have spent roughly 11,000 hours in the classroom and more than 22,000 hours in front of the television set. The young child is also far more vulnerable to TV messages than is an adult.

Today's children have developed keener observational powers and know how adults live, work, and play. They develop a superior attitude toward other people, including their parents, and that attitude carries over to the school. They place their teacher in a category, and the category depends on the teacher's personality.[15]

Children learn symbols and meaning from Sesame Street, commercials, cartoons, and other TV programs. Actually, the educational

setting in most schools is out of focus with this reality and this has contributed to a communication breakdown for many schools and teachers.

Early Childhood programs must be designed to reach youngsters who have been deeply influenced by television. Teachers should view TV as an ally and discover how TV conditions children for learning. Teachers must be daring enough to create language arts experiences that children will enjoy and internalize. However, all programs created should be carefully screened as to the possibility for child interaction as this type of learning is mostly input and not interaction.[16]

Another advancement in the field of reading or language arts is the widely publicized technological innovation using computer-assisted instruction. "Proponents maintain that in the foreseeable future, computer-based teaching machines will not only relieve teachers of the drudgery of teaching spelling, listening, and handwriting, they will also assist teachers in teaching composition and oral language skills."[17] Several universities have such programs. The University of Nebraska is an example and has a K-12 elementary program which contains 36 units built around an integrated language, literature, and composition focus using biographies, comedies, myths, and romances as its vehicle.[18]

Although there has been serious reservational expression by educators as to the worth of some technological innovations, the James S. Coleman report "exploded many hallowed myths regarding the impact of school facilities and curricula upon pupil achievement. Among the more devasting findings reported by Coleman is that differences in school facilities and curriculum . . . are so little

related to differences in achievement levels of students, that with few exceptions, their effects fail to appear even in a survey of this magnitude."[19]

2. Language Development, a Human Thing.

> "Perhaps the most important area of learning in the education of young children is that of language . . .. As a matter of fact, learning to read is predicated upon a great deal of prior language learning . . .. The role of the school is to extend and enrich the language learning of the child and to provide remediation if necessary."[20]

No matter how simple or complex it is, the child will learn the language he hears most often spoken by the adults around him. There are many speech patterns and many dialects which are based on the differences in social classes. Studies suggest that many of the differences are predicated upon the context in which statements were communicated. Because one of the important aspects of language development is to allow the child to establish a personal group identity, it is extremely important for the teacher to model a program of speaking that is used by the majority.[21]

General goals of language learning for the young child may be:

1. The development of verbal communication skills.
2. Development of rich language repertoire.
3. Development of an ability to use language to influence and be influenced.
4. Developing personal satisfaction and aesthetic appreciations of language.[22]

Most nursery-kindergarten programs set aside a good portion of their day for oral programs which consist of activity periods, dramatic play, discussion sessions, creative dramatics, puppetry, storytelling, etc. Input programs consist of reading to children, having children read to each other, TV, listening to tapes, records, etc.,

and giving directions for specific response. Such programs are planned so the child may branch out emotionally, intellectually, and imaginatively. The program should be arranged so that the art of language communication may be developed through listening and speaking, and, when the child is ready, reading and writing.

3. The Type of Teaching

The type of teaching most effective in beginning reading programs is individualized instruction. This interpretation of individualization does not mean working on a one-to-one basis, although oftentimes with early readers the one-to-one approach is necessary to get them started. Because children learn more from each other than from teachers or any other source, the interpretation of individualization for the purpose of this paper is related to proper grouping wherein children are grouped as buddies in threes, fours, fives, large groups, or whatever and whenever the grouping is most conducive.

Individualization of instruction, or group-oriented-teacher-direction, is something to advocate, interpret, and facilitate. It is one of the foremost innovations in American education. It is an open-structure, a creative interaction and may become self-directed.

R. S. Peters states:

> "Education can have no ends beyond itself. Its value derives from principles and standards implicit in it. To be educated is not to have arrived at a destination; it is to travel with a different view. What is required is not feverish preparation for something that lies ahead, but to work with a precision, possession, and taste at worthwhile things that lie to hand."[23]

Individualized instruction embraces learning how to learn, provides for individual differences, develops the dignity and worth

of the individual, directs children to think for themselves, encourages self-propulsion, nurtures creativity, includes student-planning, is based on a "what's worth knowing" curriculum and stimulates the children to explore, investigate, and seek answers.[24]

Individualization cannot be taught, it can only be guided, planned, and released by the teacher. It is the teacher's inner power of conviction exemplified by his behavior. It is his job to make it possible. It is the greatest gift the teacher has to offer. It advocates the most important of all foods for the development of the personality of the young child, that food is love. The teacher's task is not an end in itself, but a means of communicating humanity, to join loving kindness to learning, and setting oneself in order as the basis for the practice of good human relations.[25]

The Early Childhood Reading Program should not be a tightly segmented behavioristic approach, it should not be a "watered down" first grade program, and it should not be a stereotyped method of strict decoding, but it should be a scientifically conceived, humanistic use of the child's world of experiences as it is transformed into individualistic meaning and expressed in the form of symbolic interpretations.

AS YOU VIEW THE CHILD AS A READER, WHAT SHOULD YOU KNOW IN ORDER TO MEET HIS NEEDS?

The beginning reading process is a science by itself. Directing a child in beginning reading should be the most satisfying experience in a lifetime. You are working with a breath-taking potential, the potential TO BE or NOT TO BE a good reader. And, as you are confronted with this problem, test yourself with the following

questions which should lead you to serious introspection of where you are and what you need to do to begin such a program.

1. Is the child ready to read?
2. How will I know when he is ready?
3. What do I do to find out?
4. What is the one basic indication?
5. Am I sure the child will be able to succeed in the reading task?
6. Why is this important?
7. Am I able to judge beginning reading reactions in a behavioristic manner? How? Why?
8. Will I be able to present stimuli using methods of inquiry?
9. How can I relate my presentations to the child's LIVING WORLD?
10. Will I be able to select basic materials most suitable for the child? (Modality)
11. Am I conversant with the sequential skills that will direct him in a developmental manner?
12. Am I conversant with the strengths and weaknesses of various reading programs so that I can use aggressive response, multiple response, symbolic gestures, etc., in an effective manner to forward my program?
13. Will the reading program be embraced and surrounded by natural approaches? (Language experience approaches.)
14. Am I able to use varied grouping patterns breaking the "three-group-round-robin" approach?
15. Can I develop and believe in my own personalized approach as I use others' materials?
16. Can I accept every child according to his intellectual ability?
17. Will I be able to provide for flexibility in planning and learning involving the child in his educational program, viewing his learning to read as a partnership?
18. Will I provide for and take advantage of all avenues of motivation?

19. Am I able to capably use diagnostic instruments?

20. Am I able to follow diagnosis with prescriptive procedures?

21. Am I able to facilitate reading as an interrelated factor in all curriculum?

22. Will I develop the reading program directly and indirectly from "language expression" within a model of continuity?

23. Will I include "aesthetic appreciation" such as poetry, literature, arts, crafts and music as mediums that stimulate, correlate, and serve the reading process?

24. Do I conceive writing as a bridge to reading?

25. Will I provide reading situations that will develop a sense of independent action and a set of values upon which the child can base his action?

26. Will I allow time for "browsing" in books, placing "browsing" as an important level in the reading process?

27. Will I be able to maintain enthusiasm and interest in all facets of the reading process?

28. Will I establish a positive instructional setting giving positive reinforcement whenever possible?

29. Will I continue to read to the readers?

30. Will I be able to prepare and adjust a variety of materials that will meet the individual needs of the child as he proceeds through the reading process?

31. Do I have available different methods of retrieval? Can I guide the child to help with his own records?

32. Am I conversant with the technique of reading corners, interest-reading centers, listening centers, reporting centers, etc.?

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HISTORY MAKING IN THE KINDERGARTEN. . . one teacher's efforts to retrieve and record the feelings of children

Patricia J. L. Robinson

> The fundamental kindergarten problem, as in all curriculum design is one of balance...a synthesis of all the pieces into a coherent pattern of relationships. Within the school setting the child needs a chance to be known and understood as a person as well as the opportunity to learn and develop a love of learning. Establishing kinship with other children in the context of learning and responsible functioning needs to be balanced with fostering uniqueness, affective, cognitive and psychomotor development--all in considerable depth and proportion. Symbolic expression, so important in the growth of a person, must be nurtured by an evocative environment.
>
> (Evelyn Weber, The Kindergarten, p. 241)

The evocative environment that kindergarteners and adults have created provides a place to learn as we work and play. We, because children with adults work and play in a special setting that is warm and friendly, where both children and adults assume responsibility for learning to learn and live together.

This past year the writer has tried to bring about opportunities for children to know themselves and other children as people. The most significant product which came from this effort is the Book About Me. It is a collection of drawings and words that have been dictated by each child about his world and about his feelings. A kinship has been established that reaches beyond the classroom and school, into the home and will increase in value with time.

The setting in which the activities take place is a kindergarten area at El Carmelo School in Palo Alto, California. The school has multi-ethnic balance as well as a mixed socio-economic population. There are two kinder-teachers, each legally responsible for one group of twenty-five children, but who choose to work as a team with both groups.

As further background, classrooms are frequently observed by visitors from colleges and universities as well as from other parts of the world. To minimize verbal explanations about our program and maximize understanding of what precedes and follows their visit, the writer provides the observer with a "Welcome Sheet".

WHILE YOU OBSERVE, KEEP IN MIND THOSE THINGS WHICH THE CHILD VALUES:

- the feeling of being together
- laughter
- the joy of pretending
- being listened to
- learning
- celebrating his own growth and skill mastery
- the festive moment
- time of his own
- his own ideas
- help in understanding his peers
- adults of integrity

AS THE SCHOOL YEAR PROGRESSES AND THE CHILD'S EXPERIENCES INCREASE IN VARIETY, NUMBER AND DEPTH, THE CHILDREN SHOULD SHOW GROWTH...INDIVIDUALLY AND AS A GROUP IN THESE AREAS:

- increasing awareness of appropriate school behavior
- habits of attention
- appreciation of his own uniquenesses
- motor abilities
- language development
- auditory discrimination
- visual perception
- sequence of ideas
- understanding processes
- desire to read

PLEASE JOIN US. LOOK AROUND, INTERACT WITH CHILDREN IF YOU WISH, BUT PLEASE BE SENSITIVE ABOUT INTERRUPTING. WE WOULD PREFER THAT YOU DO NOT CONVERSE DURING OUR DISCUSSION TIME. WE WILL TRY TO ARRANGE A TIME FOR CLARIFICATION OR INTERPRETATION BEFORE YOU LEAVE.

Our program is not filled with gadgets and teacher tricks to entertain children. Children and adults work to match philosophy with practice to bring about an experience for four and five year old children that has HUMAN PURPOSE. Our days are filled with many choices, activities, discussions, support and caring.

Building the Book About Me was a small, but important part of our program. It was the beginning of an attempt to record personal data, information, values and feelings. In the beginning, a book of forty-eight blank pages was prepared for each child. Each page was numbered for convenience and would later be used as a tool for building a table of contents. They were introduced to their book with a fast moving discussion concerning individual uniqueness and bookness. "A book is a bunch of ideas that somebody wrote down," said Jenny. Amaury said, "My thumb is unique--it gots a wart on it." The array of comments was recorded on a large sheet of newsprint. It was their talk written down. The importance of their ideas was obvious as the enthusiasm for each comment was expressed. Their ideas were valuable, accepted, appreciated and recorded. They followed the words on the chart as we "read".

On the cover of each book the child wrote whatever September-squiggle he thought to be his name and drew a picture of himself. This was the beginning of a personalized "workbook". It was decided that the first page would have a picture of them in their favorite "environment". The adults who were available for taking dictation had agreed on basic guidelines for retrieval. This retrieval on the part of the adults began immediately. "I'm Orlandus and I'm five 'cause that

old ugly Mrs. Kinks made me flunk kindergarten." His brown eyes closed when asked if he would like to talk more about his feelings about being in kindergarten again.

The privacy and caring of that conversation made it possible for a trusting relationship to flourish. After, he said, "Just write I am Orlandus. I am five." Encouraged to read the page to one friend, he did so with authenticity and excitement.

> No human being can teach another "how to read". He can only set up conditions which facilitates the awareness of the relationship between speech and the printed symbols. No one really knows how the thought processes of a child permits this to happen, but we know that it does--if not interferred with so as to confuse the child. The best chance that the largest number of children will come to read with effectiveness and satisfaction is when they are exposed to a great deal of personal and peer discussion and comment and see their oral expression translated into written symbols and then translated back into oral expression...whether by themselves, a peer or an adult.
>
> (Malcolm Douglas, Claremont Reading Conference, 1970)

The Book About Me seemed to be a natural way to expose children to these important relationships. Without stress or pressure, each child develops in his own way the ability to talk about his own thoughts and feelings.

Very early in the project, it became apparent that value of this book was increasing with each page. Parents caught the enthusiasm from their kinders; adults who took dictation talked about the books; helpers from the upper grades added still another dimension by asking permission to read the latest pages. In spite of the stir that this book was causing, it remained a private possession. During discussion time, children who wished to have their page shown and read did so. Those who did not want to share had the right to "pass". During the group discussions, observations were made about content, drawing style, inclusion of detail,

expanded vocabulary or changes in sentence structure. The level of awareness of these elements increased and as one might suspect, the quality of work steadily improved.

In the retrieval process, it is imperative that the adults are skillful and aware of how the child seems to feel about revealing his ideas and how new skills can be taught. A list of clarifying questions was made by teachers and parents using words that would encourage children to think about their own feelings and actions rather than probing inappropriately.

How do you feel about your idea?
Is this something you like very much?
Can you give me some more examples of that idea?
Are you glad about that?
Have you felt this way for a long time?
Is there anything that you can do about the way you feel?
Can you tell me more about your idea?
What are some good things about your idea?
Are there any bad things about your idea?
Can you think of other ways you could have behaved?
If you really like something or someone, how do you show your feelings?
How do you let people know how you feel?

Every effort was made to minimize the wasteful, waiting-in-line time. If there happened to be children waiting for words, books were stacked. The children would be called during outdoor playtime or worktime.

The date was recorded on each page of work. A variety of ways of recording were used: a date stamp, full sentence, "code", etc.

No attempt was made to psychoanalyze the drawings of any child.

Occasionally those children who consistently "passed" would be asked for feedback. Many of them liked the power of privacy. One girl said that she felt shy about her work.

The ideas for the pages came from several sources. Children generated most of the ideas. Children's books provided several topics. Teachers, parents and other interested people brought suggestions.

There was a "free space" in the books for children to fill as they wanted to. The unnumbered pages on the left were used for any idea that was important enough to record. This space was used for poems, stories, accounts of a family outing, festive moments, samples of ABC writing, art, math, etc.

Children's expressions in About Me that were included in the past year's book were based on some 37 ideas. It is important to note that what follows is a Table of Contents rather than a fill-in-the-blanks exercise.

1. I am _____.
   I am _____years old.

2. I am _____inches tall.
   I weigh _____pounds.
   My hand is this big. (Trace around hand)

3. Here I am with my family.
   Each one of them is special.

4. Here is my family's home.
   My favorite place in my home is _____.

5. I go to school now.
   The part I like best about school is _____.

6. If I could change something about school, it would be__because__.

7. Here is a picture of me doing something easy.

8. Here is a picture of me doing something hard.

9. Here are some people I like alot.

10. Sometimes I feel scared. It usually happens when_____.

11. Sometimes I feel angry. It usually happens when _____.

12. I wish that I had _____because_____.

13. When I grow up I'd like to_____.

14. My favorite food is_____. Here is one thing I will not eat.

15. The thing that I like best about me is_____.

16. If I could change something about me, it would be_____.

17. The story that I like best of all is_____.

18-22. Five things I love.

23. My mom makes some special food. I'll tell you how she does it.

24. I'm curious about_____.

25. Happiness is_____.

26. If I could make my own birthday cake, it would look like this.

27. Here is a map of how I get from my house to my school.

28. The worst dream I ever had.

29. Here I am again. Now I'm_____years old, have_____teeth missing and weigh_____.

30. Here I am doing something easy. Here I am doing something hard.

31. I am growing and changing. I notice some things about me that are different.

32. Next year I want to learn_____.

33. At Spring Break I _____.

34. A mom came to tell us about the baby that is growing inside her.

35. I have some favorite big people friends. They are_____.

36. When I am a year older, I will be able to _____.

37. Here are some things I would liked to have shared with the class, but I could not bring them to school.

Also included in the books were photos of each child, taken at various times of the year, a letter to them from their teacher and three typewritten pages of I Remember. (I Remember was retrieved the day before school ended.) It was a stream of consciousness that was typed as the children talked about the events, feelings and learnings of the year in the kindergarten.

Along with the Book About Me, the kinders had an At-Home-Folder which contained many Kinder-Bulletins. Each Friday a pictorial re-cap of the week's events was sent home. This Kinder-Bulletin was greatly appreciated and served to strengthen the children's language skills and the communication between school and home. Still another retrieval-based project was an ABC, 123 Book that the children made as we worked with sound-symbol relationships. Each book was as different as each child. Pages were filled with carefully drawn objects whose names began with whatever sound-symbol the group had chosen. The objects were labeled by the same retrieval process.

Paintings and drawings, creative work of all kinds often had words that explained or enhanced the art work. Books by the hundreds were produced and enjoyed by children during the school year. The book-making subjects ranged from records of science experiments to how to catch toads.

The process was reversed on the last day of school. A smiling boy child handed the writer a carefully wrapped gift. Surprise and delight described her feelings as she looked at this unexpected treasure. Richard's mother had been helping with the retrieval projects during the year. Now, on bright magenta paper, Richard had drawn many pictures of himself doing things he felt good about.

He expressed his enthusiasm with the help of his mother.

I am Richard Blake.
I can do lots of things.
I like my school and my friends.

Here is a picture of my teacher.
She knows I'm special--like the rest of the kids.
She knows that I can do my carefullest work.
I know she likes me.
She knows I like her.

June 14, 1973

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PRESCHOOLERS LEARN COGNITIVE TASKS IN GROUPS

Owen W. Cahoon

Recently there has been a new emphasis placed on fostering or accelerating intellectual growth and an interest in including cognitive elements in the curriculum for programs of young children. Although children's thinking, perception and other intellectual and cognitive behaviors have been a topic of investigation by childhood educators for many years, there now seems to be a compulsion to make preschool programs reflect the present concern with cognitive growth.

Surveys of early childhood education during the latter half of the 1960's and early part of the 1970's show a considerable increase in the numbers of preschool programs. There is sure to be an increase during this decade. Brazziel[1] suggested that it would be sensible to plan for nearly 2,000,000 children and 70,000 teachers by 1980. In order to provide meaningful preschool experiences for even larger numbers of preschool children, the nature and quality of preschool education is a question far more important than ever before. Programs will have to be functional and utilitarian, for constant improvisation and experimentation can lead to public disenchantment and professional chaos.

An evaluation of Project Head Start, a federally sponsored program from the Office of Economic Opportunity aimed at helping economically deprived children, supplies evidence that existing programs for preschool children display varying emphasis on spontaneous play, physical activities, socialization, and freedom to explore and manipulate an "enriched environment." Lavatelli[2], arguing that Head Start programs based upon enrichment principles alone are not

acceptable, notes that " . . . the traditional nursery school, even with enrichment experience, by virtue of its unplanned nature, leaves too much to chance." She is of the opinion that compensatory programs are needed, the degree and kind of intervention varying considerably to meet the special situation. Biber[3] suggested that stimulation of cognitive growth is an important responsibility of schooling at all stages. She feels that it is important to foster cognitive skills in the "context of the other developmental processes for which shool is equally responsible."

It has often been stressed that nursery schools should provide something more than a play environment away from home. More recently, due largely to the influence of the cognitive theorists, Piaget and Bruner, the change has explicitly been to include elements which are expected to nurture specific cognitive skills. Almy[4] urged that preschool teachers should analyze and diagnose cognitive functioning revealed in play, and in light of that analysis, make provisions for the children's development both in their play and in other aspects of the curriculum. Additionally, Kohlberg emphasizes the need to recognize sequential or developmental learning at the preschool level:

> "What seems required is a new approach which would take into account the fact that the preschooler's orientation to reality is a developmental stage which should be integrated into later stages of development. To put off 'reality' until elementary school is only to divorce the child's preschool world of the subjective from the elementary school world of the objective."[5]

Although the need for the inclusion of cognitive elements in preschool programs has been recognized and materials for "spontaneous" cognitive growth are certainly present in any typical nursery school, few early childhood education programs have specific planned cognitive

elements in their organized curricula. Bereiter and Engelmann[6] have identified two possibilities for acceleration of cognitive development: (1) selecting experiences that produce more learning, and (2) compressing more experience into the time available. Such possibilities imply the necessity for selection and exclusion in the program, focusing upon academic objectives and relegating all non-academic objects to a secondary position.

As innovative programs and "catch-up" academically-oriented programs have appeared, many traditional preschool groups have attempted to incorporate cognitive elements into their already functional curriculum. These efforts have not been altogether successful. Cognitive materials may be improperly designed or haphazardly presented resulting in less than anticipated beneficial intellectual growth. A genuine rejection of "stock" Piagetian problems by the children has often been reported. In fact most schools who presume to provide units in cognition do so in individual sessions, more resembling psychological experimentation than preschool education. Children are taken from a group setting and tested, trained and retested individually. The experimenter typically seats the child at a table while he manipulates the training objects and instructs the child to respond verbally to questions. The child is a passive observer and commenter. One to five training sessions of anywhere from 15 to 60 minutes long are spread over a period of a few days. Often the pretest, the training sessions, and the posttest are identical, all being virtually no more than "coaching" on the task items.

There is some hazard in depending upon such individual experimentation to foster cognitive growth and change. Taking a

child from the "natural" preschool environment to an experience where he may feel estranged and insecure often leads to emotional distress. Most nursery school teachers dread having their students removed for experimentation since too many experimenters "know about" children but do not "know" them. It would seem that movement from unorganized free play to somewhat organized cognitive experience could most usefully be provided in the classroom situation.

The researchers who have used individual cognitive training settings have largely ignored Piaget's[7] own advice. He was concerned that cognitive growth occurs not only because of the presence of physical objects but because of the social structure. Children grow best when they do things "in social collaboration, in a group effort. This leads to a critical frame of mind, where children must communicate with each other. This is an essential factor in intellectual development. Cooperation is indeed cooperation."[8]

In order to integrate cognitive development into the preschool setting and practice, a better match between the child's cognitive organization pattern and the situational setting of the preschool must be developed. The question seems urgent: Why cannot planned cognitive experiences be administered in "group settings" under natural preschool conditions. To attempt an answer a research study involving cognitive training tasks similar to those found in experimental studies of cognitive development but designed to be presented to children in group training sessions was conducted.

The study attempted to determine whether a group training program utilizing conservation tasks was suitable and applicable to preschool programs and would evidence increased scores on typical tests of cognition.

Thirty-five middle-class nursery school children, ranging in age from 47 to 63 months, were pretested, trained and posttested on cognitive tasks of Substance, Class-Inclusion, Seriation, Length, Number, and Weight. Four trained testers gave identical pretests and posttests but did not participate in the day-to-day classes; both testers and children were unchanged on the second test.

After pretesting, the children, randomly assigned to six training groups, underwent a three-week training program directed by the experimenter. Each group received training on four assigned tasks and served as control subjects on two additional tasks for which training was withheld. There were three sessions of 30 minutes devoted to training on each experimental task. Training consisted of presenting conservation materials which were of a similar type but in no way identical to the test items, and as usual, asking questions and discussing the various manipulations of the materials. All were designed to use large muscles or a situation where manipulation of the materials could be done by several persons.

An example of some of the training tasks used in the study follows:

> Substance. Various sized square cloths (napkin, 12 inches square; red linen table cloth, 3 feet square; blue canvas tarp, 6 feet square; green canvas tarp, 12 feet square) were used for teaching Substance. Each item was manipulated by folding sequentially into fourths, eighths, and sixteenths. Questions were asked whether there was still the same amount of cloth after it had been folded into a different shape. The children's responses were encouraged and corrected during the discussion. The children participated in folding and unfolding.
>
> Class-Inclusion. Various shaped and colored blocks were the materials used here. Included in the assortment were four yellow and four blue blocks, triangular in shape; four red and four green blocks, square in shape; four orange and four purple blocks of diamond shape; and four two-inch high wooden figures of people, one red, one green, one blue, and one orange. The children were informed that

there were similarities and differences among the pile of blocks on the floor. They were encouraged to point out the similarities and group the blocks accordingly. Each child was assigned a specific color and asked to remove all the blocks of his color from the central pile. After sorting blocks by color, the children were asked to find other similarities or ways the blocks could be grouped. Through discussion it was established that the blocks were alike in colors, shapes, and that all were made of wood. Similar activities and discussions were conducted dealing with differences among the blocks.

Seriation. Each child was given a set of nesting barrels, the largest being about three inches tall. The teacher directed the children's manipulations by disassembling his own set of barrels into seven individual barrels. After each child had taken his barrels apart and reassembled them, they were told to stack the barrels beginning with the largest sized barrel on the bottom and proceeding until all barrels were stacked. Other manipulations consisted of placing the barrels end-to-end graduating from smallest to largest. The barrels were also taken apart and various manipulations were made using half-barrels. The final manipulation was to reassemble all barrels inside one another starting with the smallest in size and continuing until the barrels were together and in the same condition as when the task began. All manipulations were accompanied by discussion and explanation of each ongoing activity.

Length. Each child was given a four-foot length of string. The children were informed that the string would be used to measure various things around the room. A child was chosen to be measured. Measurements were taken by other children to see if the child would measure the same length when his body was in different positions, i.e., sitting, standing, bending down, and lying flat on the floor. The children were asked whether they thought the same length of string would be needed for measurements during all position changes. It was explained that the string followed the lines of the body and that the body length remained the same throughout all position changes. Various objects in the room were measured, such as windows, doors, chairs, table, bulletin board, etc.. Measurements using the strings were taken for width, distance from the floor, circumference, height, and around the corner to aid the children's concept of continuous length.

Number. Eight cupcakes and eight empty juice glasses were used. A line of masking tape divided a small table into two equal halves. The cupcakes were placed on one side of the line and the empty juice glasses were placed in a one-to-one correspondence across the line from the cupcakes. Manipulations consisted of extending the line of cupcakes while leaving the juice glasses in position. The children were asked questions as to whether the number of cupcakes was still the same as the juice glasses when the cupcakes were

longer or looked different. Counting was used to establish that the number remained the same unless some were removed. Part of the juice glasses were filled and the question was asked as to whether there were more glasses filled with juice or more glasses which were empty. Again counting was used to establish the correct answer. Other manipulations consisted of removing one or two cupcakes and/or juice glasses and then having the children count the number remaining to see whether the number of cupcakes and/or juice glasses was the same. Discussions and corrections of misconceptions were made for each manipulation. At the conclusion of the task, the children were given the juice and cupcakes for a snack.

Weight. A red wooden balance scale was used as the basic tool. Items to be weighed were marbles, wooden blocks, and metal plates. The teacher explained that a balance scale could be used to weigh objects to see which of two compared objects was heavier or which was lighter. As each previously selected pair of objects were presented, a child was instructed to find out whether his answer was right by placing his objects on the balance scale. After weighing the objects, the child was directed to change the weight by adding something or taking something away from one side or the other. Various manipulations were performed accompanied by explanations and discussion about the weight of objects.

As seen in these task examples, some tasks required children to use whole body activity or cooperation and working together of several children in order to accomplish directed manipulations; and other tasks required observation and directed participation according to the experimenter's instructions.

There was evidence from the study that the mechanics of presenting conventional cognitive materials in forms which are palatable additions to the nursery school routine can be mastered. The training sessions were looked forward to by all of the study children. Interest and enthusiasm were maintained throughout the training sessions and there were none of the signs of boredom and refusals to participate often found in individual training sessions.

Most children experienced at least modest gains in several areas. Considering the total test battery in which there was a possible 90 points, only two children showed lower performance on

posttest and one child remained constant. The others (32 children) increased from 25 to 30 points; the highest gained 60 points. Some, if not all, of such gain could be attributed to the group training procedures involved.

More recently Sheffield[9] partially replicated Cahoon's study.[10] She pretested, trained, and retested 109 children, ranging in age from 48 months to 67 months. Her subjects were middle-class children from eight different nursery school classes. Her results showed significant gains in five of the six conservation tasks on which the children were tested: Substance, Class-Inclusion, Length, Number, and Weight. Results of the Seriation tasks did not reach significance. She did not find significant task transfer from tasks on which children had been trained to others in the test battery.

In order to meet and assist the intellectual needs of each child in any type of preschool program, planned cognitive elements administered to groups of children in a natural setting seems to be possible, warranted and effective. Cognitive programs which do not arouse interest and show beneficial results in increased understanding and abilities in cognitive task performance have no place in the preschool. On the other hand, the teacher should feel as much at ease in and as firmly dedicated to making a helpful environment cognitively as is typical for social or educational objectives.

At the present time the writer is in the process of putting the cognitive training tasks used in his study along with other cognitive materials into a book for use by preschool educators. The materials will be designed to be administered to groups of children and there will be instruments to evaluate the progress of preschool children.

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TEACHING CONCEPTS AND PRINCIPLES TO CHILDREN

David R. Cox

The evaluation of a particular learning sequence often produces mystifying and disconcerting results as viewed by the teacher and perhaps by the children as well. Although the teacher has assumed that the children have learned very well, there may often be considerable variability in what is actually acquired. A number of learners may not have attained mastery of the concepts and principles, and numerous misconceptions may be evident.

The extreme difficulty and sublety of inculcating particular understandings in learners is often brought forcefully to the attention of every teacher who is sincerely trying to succeed in that task. I have often been shocked and somewhat frustrated after teaching some topic to have a student come to see me after the first examination and say, "I missed that item because we said in class that....". Then, after I have recovered somewhat from the shock, I reply, "John, we didn't put it quite that way....". But I always wonder afterwards if the student really thought I had tricked him.

All people have vague, half-formed or false conceptions, and some of them were learned in school. This

state of affairs results from the complex interplay of factors in the learning process. Of course, one of the primary reasons is that we must bring to bear our particular and unique experiences and prior learnings when we learn something new. This is a prime source for variance and distortion. However, in my opinion, conceptualization, retention, and transfer could be greatly improved if teachers knew more about the nature of learning concepts and principles and were thereby able to improve teaching techniques.

Richard Anderson states:

> The teaching of concepts and principles is among the most important activities of the schools. Yet this is a topic about which pitifully little is known....

Anderson continues:

> A third and more important reason for the impoverished state of experimental knowledge about concept and principle learning is the lack of a sufficiently penetrating analysis of what concepts and principles are and how you know when a person has one.[1]

Certainly, if teachers were asked what concepts and principles are, how they are learned, and how we would know when a person has one, many and diverse opinions would be forthcoming. With such uncertainty and confusion, we can hardly expect consistently effective results in the learning of concepts and principles.

The Nature of Concepts and Principles

Contributing to the difficulty of understanding and teaching concepts and principles is the fact that

they are complex in nature, function, and relationships. Klausmeier (p. 391) indicates that individuals often do not agree on the nature of concepts, since each person focuses on certain attributes of concepts which are dominant for him, while failing to perceive what is dominant for others.[2]

Klausmeier (p. 402) defines a concept as follows:

> ... A concept is a mental construct, or abstraction, characterized by psychological meaningfulness, structure, and transferability that enables an individual to do the following: (1) cognize things and events belonging to the same class and as different from things and events belonging to other classes; (2) cognize other related superordinate, coordinate, and subordinate concepts in a heirarchy; (3) acquire principles and solve problems involving the concept; (4) learn other concepts of the same difficulty level in less time.[2]

Englemann (p. 9) indicates that a concept is "a set of characteristics that is shared by all instances in a particular set and only by these instances."[3]

Words are not concepts but are labels for them. Klausmeier (p. 3) points out that:

> ... The attainment of a concrete concept thus requires attending to perceptible features of an object and forming a memory image which represents the object as a unique, global bundle of features. The attainment of a concrete concept does not require having a name for the object.[4]

Learning concepts and principles is also complicated by the fact that each individual may have personal experiences which develop certain connotations for him. For example, there are various meanings related to the

concept "mother" depending upon what one's experience has been.

Concepts vary in generality and preciseness of meaning. General concepts are more vague in meaning with wide application. Yet they are very useful when one wishes to include many instances. The concept "metal" is very general in nature and because of its many applications is difficult to learn. Yet this concept has great utility.

Concepts, together with the labels we use for them, have remarkable subtlety and adaptability in our thinking processes. I sometimes search for a word which expresses exactly the thought I wish to convey. If I use the term "body of water" for example, this would include a wide range of instances such as ocean, sea, lake, pond, and so on. However, in another situation, I might want to indicate more precisely that what I am referring to is a lake and not an ocean or a sea.

The process of learning a concept requires that the learner cognizes the various characteristics which belong to that particular set. Therefore, teaching a concept requires at the outset careful identification of critical attributes which the child must know to understand the concept to the degree desired. To illustrate, an apple has characteristics such as shape, skin, texture, color, and others. One could go into chemical composition, nutrient values and so on,

according to the level of understanding wanted.

Some attributes of a concept are critical in learning it, and some are not. If we look again at the illustration above, we find that shape is probably critical in learning the concept "apple," but color is not since apples come in various colors.

Both generalization and discrimination must operate in the process of conceptualization. To learn the concept "apple," the learner must generalize from the immediate example to include other apples which may be different in size, color, or taste. In addition, the individual must also be able to discriminate those characteristics which make something "non-apple" so that he can recognize that bananas, berries, or peas do not fit that particular set.

A principle shows relationship between two or more concepts and should be taught when the relationship is the important consideration rather than the concept per se. Examples of principles are "hot air rises," "power tends to corrupt," or "adverbs modify verbs." Statements about concepts which do not indicate a relationship are not principles. In addition, principles cannot be understood unless the concepts involved are also cognized.

Teaching Decisions

A number of decisions must be made when teaching concepts and principles. First of all, educators must

decide what concepts will be learned by the child at any particular level in his development. Should the concept "weather" or "metal" be taught to children of six or seven? Both of these concepts are general and complicated, requiring much prior learning. In addition, would the principle "hot air rises" be taught at that level?

Secondly, the teacher must decide upon the level of complexity to be reached. Rather simple understandings about weather can be taught to young children, but weather can become a very complicated topic if one pursues it. What degree of comprehension about a topic is desirable for a particular group of children at a particular age?

Third, the teacher, and perhaps the learners, must determine the direction and pattern of development. Does development of the topic require learning principles, concepts or both? Where does the development of the topic lead, and what order of learning would be most productive?

Teaching Procedures

Teaching concepts and principles involves problems which Englemann (p. 19) has described as follows:

> The objective of teaching is to somehow give the child concepts by showing him the sets of shared characteristics that comprise these concepts. The dilemma of teaching is that it is impossible to give him concepts directly. A teacher cannot say, "Here's the concept," and give it to the child. At best, he can describe the concept with words; but not all concepts can be described verbally,

and a verbal description often assumes a very sophisticated knowledge of language which the child may not have.[3]

Since teaching concepts and principles is a complex task, there are four procedures which I believe would help teachers perform the task more efficiently. These are:

1. Analyze the material to be learned. Determine what concepts and principles are involved and how they relate to each other. During this analysis, teaching decisions must be made as discussed above. This analysis should reveal specifications for teaching and levels of learning to be required.

2. Demonstrate or give the children experiences with each concept or principle. Critical characteristics may be learned by giving a child experience with a number of examples of the set having a variety of non-critical attributes. The learner then has an opportunity to differentiate the critical attributes from the non-critical ones and make the necessary generalization. For instance, if we take our apple again, the children would be able to examine examples of various size, color, and kind so that acceptable variations within the set could be noted.

Necessary differentiations in cognizing set boundaries would be attained by presenting non-examples where appropriate. In the particular situation we have been looking at, other fruits would then be presented. Verbal

indications or labels must be used to develop discrimination and generalization. For example, the teacher might say, "This is an apple. This is also an apple, but this is not an apple." In this procedure, the teacher is expressing to the child that even though these objects are different in some ways, they share certain qualities by which they belong to the same set. Certain of the objects, even though they have some of the same characteristics, are different in certain ways so that they do not belong to this particular set. This process, however, is often complicated by the fact that many attributes are very subtle in character. Perhaps they are not readily observable, available, or even identifiable.

3. Give the learner opportunities to practice using concepts and principles to learn how they function. It may help him to understand better if he cognizes other concepts as subordinate and superordinate. For example, an apple is part of a class known as a fruit, and it has seeds and a stem. Student discovery and experimentation with concepts and principles should be encouraged. Perhaps some principles may be formed using concepts, and principles might be applied in various situations.

4. Provide tasks which the learners perform to determine if concepts and principles are understood. The learner must be able to demonstrate attainment in accordance with the specifications and levels determined in the

preliminary analysis. In our particular example, the child should be able to select all apples from an aggregation of examples consisting of a number of kinds, colors, and sizes of apples, as well as other fruits and non-fruit items.

If the final evaluation task is not accomplished by every child, then the teacher can't really know if each child has learned the concept or principle. Often, in actual practice, the final task is neglected or is not accomplished by all of the children. As a result, the teacher moves to another topic, not fully comprehending that some children have not attained mastery.

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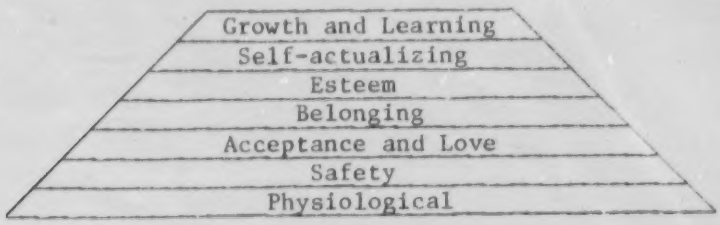
Motivation in Childhood Education

Elwin C. Nielsen

A wide variety of types of motivating systems and ideas are currently being promoted in American education. These range all the way from a very objective approach where behaviors are counted and specific behaviors reinforced to very subjective and feeling-oriented systems based on faith in the inner drive and the goodness of the child. A model that comes somewhere in between the extremes and is perhaps one that can be accepted by teachers from a variety of points of view is the one developed by Rudolph Dreikurs and his students based on the psychology of Alfred Adler.

Adler argues that people are born into the world with basic good qualities about them and that they need to be understood and allowed to develop in such a way that their needs can be fulfilled. He describes some very basic needs that all human beings seem to have. Other authorities in the field since then have expanded the list so that we now have fairly broad agreement on a small list of needs that must be satisfied if the individual is to achieve a reasonable, productive adjustment in his life. We might summarize these lists by suggesting that they all comprise some form of the following needs: physiological needs, needs for safety, needs for acceptance, need to be esteemed by others and by one self, need to belong to a primary group, and needs for self-actualization and growth.

Those familiar with Maslow's writings will recognize the influence of his thinking in this list. They may also recall that Maslow among others makes a strong point of the fact that these needs are to some degree interdependent and that a person will not be likely to be striving to fulfill a higher order need as indicated by those more near the top of the pyramid below until lower order needs are satisfied. This suggests that children's interest in learning and developing their minds is not going to be very high if they're hungry or afraid or feel that they are not cared about or do not belong. Likewise children who do not get along socially are not likely to begin to wish to learn or be motivated to do so until they begin to feel some acceptance, some safety and some degree of esteem.



Hierarchy of Needs

The Adlerian model therefore, suggests that it is essential that every learner be treated as a worthwhile, significant member of society with the right to have his opportunity to fulfill needs in a reasonable fashion. Teachers must pay strong attention to these basic needs and make certain that they are being met with a particular youngster before they can really expect him to apply himself to academic learning. When these needs are not

met the youngster becomes frustrated and troubled and develops mistaken goals to replace those that he cannot fulfill satisfactorily. A child who is striving for one of the mistaken goals is a child who is in trouble and who is likely to cause trouble for those about him. It is important, therefore, that teachers understand basic needs and also be alert to mistaken goals so that when they see behavior being exhibited which is relevant to one of these mistaken goals they can begin to interpret that behavior and help the child get back on to the right track. The chart which accompanies this paper summarizes the child's mistaken goals and gives a number of clues as to how each of these goals along with its accompanying troublesome behavior can be eliminated.

This model has been demonstrated very widely across the nation and has been found most effective for teachers and for parents. People who are interested in understanding more thoroughly might read one of the following three books: Rudolph Dreikurs & Vicki Soltz, Children The Challenge; Dreikurs, Grunwald & Pepper, Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom; Dreikurs, Psychology in the Classroom.

Child's Mistaken Goals

Goal of Misbehavior	What child is saying with his behavior	How Teacher feels	Mother's Natural Response	Child's reaction to reprimand	Some Corrective measures
ATTENTION	I only count when I am being noticed or served	Annoyed Wants to remind, coax Delighted with "good" child	Mother gives undue attention and/or service ("You take so much of my time.")	Temporarily stops distrubing action when given attention	Ignore Answer or do the unexpected Give attention at pleasant times
POWER	I only count when I am dominating, when you do what I want you to do	Provoked Generally wants power Challenged "I'll make him do it." "You can't get away with it."	Mother fights for control to be boss ("You can't get away with that.")	Intensifies action when reprimanded Child wants to win, be boss	Extricate self Act, not talk Be friendly Establish equality Redirect child's efforts into constructive channels
REVENGE	I can't be liked, I don't have power, but I'll count if I can hurt others as I feel hurt by life	Hurt, mad "How could he do this to me?"	Mother burst back, strikes back. ("I'll get even with you.")	Wants to get even Makes self disliked	Extricate self Win child Maintain order with minimum restraint Avoid retaliations Take time and effort to help child
INADEQUACY	I can't do anything right so I won't try to do anything at all; I am no good	Despair "I give up."	Mother leaves the child alone. Hesitates to require anything of him. (I don't know what to do.")	No reprimand, therefore, no reaction Feels there is no use to try Passive	Encouragement (may take long) Faith in child's ability

This chart is based upon one developed by Mrs. Nancy Pearcey, Corvallis, Oregon

THE CULTURALLY UNIQUE

by Opal Y Patrick

I would like to share with you some of my views, feelings and assumptions in working with Black people specifically and the culturally unique in general. In my final analysis I should like to project some teaching and curricula implications.

The first and over-riding basic assumption to be made about Blacks or any other group is that they are human beings--no matter the language, no matter the custom, no matter the dress, no matter the hair style, no matter the skin color, no matter the intelligence quotient, the educational, economical or aspirational level. We are all human beings --- We feel, we react, we love, we laugh, we cry, we die .....

Therefore, as teachers, educators, workers and laymen, we must accept Blacks for what they are -- with all their human strengths and failings like the human strengths and failings of any other group. The assumption must be made that the culturally unique can succeed and they can have a positive prophesy fulfillment.

This phenomenon "prophesy fulfillment" is a strange and curious one. For it implies that what a man thinketh so is he or what others think of him he may become. For example, if a teacher expects a child to succeed, he most likely will. If the teacher expects the child to fail, he most likely will. It is then important that we recognize that this phenomenon is at work and use it as a positive advantage.

Further, we must make the assumptions and recognize that those culturally unique have their own value systems. We must cease to inadvertently and irrelevantly attack these value systems--for the tide has shifted away from the whitewashing of diverse values and differing cultural patterns. We can see a new acceptance and appreciation becoming apparent. The change, however, has not come without pain--for it has required the conscious re-thinking of old systems, patterns, relationships and customs.

We must assume that Blacks as well as other groups have re-defined themselves and will no longer accept the old definitions nor will they accept the definition of others.

We must assume that no matter the difficulties in a land of said democracy, the culturally unique can and will stretch beyond their set limits and can and will explore the far and new horizons.

We as teachers, laymen, workers and educators must assume the responsibility to help the culturally unique whose aggressive drives have been stifled, who have had no positive constructive relationships, whose image of themselves has been so damaged that they feel no pride, and whose hate is so deep that the only answer is physical destruction--they who have lost belief in human value, in individual initiative, in individual achievement--those who feel alienated, worthless, and disproved.

We must assume a warm attitude of mutual respect and empathy. We must strive to know how it feels to "walk in their shoes," "to eat at their table," or "to sing in their church."

We must assume that the life styles of many of the culturally unique have made them experts in practical experience and dealings with social problems. They have had many experiences with our social institutions which can be used positively. Their strong in-group feelings and group loyalties developed as survival techniques can be guided into constructive expressions. Self-reliance, autonomy and independence may have developed early in a frame work of basic need. These too can be guided into modes of constructive expression. We should perceive these groups as being not without experiences or understandings, nor deficient in responsibility within the confines of their existence. These attributes can be utilized in the larger arena. We must also recognize their adaptive strengths as well as their academic limitations. As workers and educators it is our task to bring together the academically talented from the larger society and the worldly realistic in a daring adventure of mutual sharing, trust and learning.

We must recognize also that the culturally unique do not necessarily differ in aptitude and interest. They may only differ in their ability to take advantage of the typical American school whose curriculum is academic, cognitively oriented and attuned to the prevailing culture and whose style and processes are foreign to the group in question. The culturally unique may be in classrooms which are ill-suited to their needs. Although in many cases they may possess high levels of intellect, they are mired down by lack of opportunity, years of neglect and indifference and racial as well as cultural prejudices.

What then are the curricula and teaching implications? We must make our teaching and curricula relevant -- One of our most glaring deficiencies in education is the lack of contact of our teaching and subject matter with the learner. We hear "School is phony--it has nothing to do with life like we know it. The people we read about are all one way---all good or all bad--and so are the things that happen to them." This prevailing attitude has been attributed to the culturally unique, but is it so different from the attitudes of the larger group? In this century the spotlight has very clearly shown the widespread failure of education in general and the curricula in particular to lead any group no matter the cultural affiliation toward the behavior our society considers desirable. (Notwithstanding that even these behaviors may be in question.)

In this century contemporary curriculum reform agencies have done much to make the process and curriculum structure more significant in terms of academic subjects, but they have not touched the core of the problem: making the content more personally meaningful--especially for the culturally unique child.

Much of the current curricula fails to make contact with the learner because of the following:

First: Failure to match teaching procedures to children's learning styles. Research shows that many unique groups learn best in situations which are concrete. A teacher then should develop techniques which would help these children learn best.

Second: The use of materials that is outside or poorly related to the learner's knowledge of his physical realm of experience. For example teaching that relates to an urban child's neighborhood or city is more relevant than teaching exclusively about suburban life and foreign countries but a good teacher will begin with the known and proceed to the unknown.

Third: The use of teaching materials and methods that ignore the learner's feelings. Student feelings about his experiences may serve to involve him more deeply into subject content. For instance a unit on the policeman may appear relevant to an urban child because it falls within his experience. But if the learner has a fear of policemen the selection of such a subject may actually inhibit his learning. I am not saying that we should not teach him about the policeman, but I am saying that the child's fears should be identified and addressed to before the unit is begun. The reasons for tension between the policeman and the child or the community must be dealt with. Contact must be made with the subject matter on the human level. A teacher must determine learner attitude about a given subject before moving him into a more analytical or cognitive realm.

Fourth: The use of teaching content that ignores the concerns of the learner. Concerns underlie uneasinesses learners have about themselves and their relation to the world. At this level a teacher must deal with fundamental questions that people frequently ask themselves. "Who am I?" "How do I fit into the scheme of things?" "Why do I feel the way I do?" "Is there something wrong with me?" "Does anyone think I'm any good?"

Thus concurrently there must be a connection between knowledge placed before the learner and his experience and background. We must not ignore the question "What does it have to do with me?" Knowledge gained in any other way will matter little to the learner.

Lastly, we must assume that the culturally unique must be educated. Education aims should be to develop change in the individual whenever or wherever necessary. It's aims should be to open doors and windows. It should help the learner to discover for himself some of his potentials for doing, thinking, feeling and valuing. It should help him to cope with the larger society and serve as a bridge between cultures. It should provide a transitional experience rather than a leap into a foreign set of values and practices.

How can education do this for the culturally unique Black? The answer is--curriculum developers can add content to the existing framework which can bolster the self images of Black children. This added content can help these children to overcome the psychological effects of centuries of discrimination.

The following is an example of what can be done at the elementary, secondary and University levels. At the lower levels Black English should be incorporated into the language curriculum if feasible. If local dialect is sufficiently different from the Englisn taught in the school, the latter should be taught with an "English as a second language technique."

Arabic or Swahili might be offered along with other European languages if there is interest.

Social sciences courses should possess a Black dimension. Where the development of the western United States and other areas are being taught, attention should be given to the Black pioneers of the Southwest as well as other areas. Early Black officials, explorers and soldiers should be studied as well as recent developments. Courses in Afro-American history should be integrated into the history curriculum.

Courses in literature should include reading in Black literature and should include works by and about Blacks.

Curricula in music and "music appreciation" should give attention to all classes of Afro-American music including folk, blues, jazz, calypso and others. African and Afro-American dance styles should be included in any dance curriculum along with other forms of the arts.

Art and craft courses should acquaint all pupils with African and Afro-American art forms and provide a tie in with the various "Black Art" movements.

Black southern cooking could be included in the home economics curriculum.

The Black heritage should be treated as an integral and valuable part of our common legacy and not as a bit of "exotica" to be used solely for the common benefit of Black pupils.

In order to enhance the self-concept, Blacks should be used for teaching aids, tutors, para-professionals and student counselors

as well as being classroom teachers. From the world of work Blacks should be brought in as speakers for assmeblies and career days.

At the university level, colleges should develop courses whenever applicable. Related colleges should develop symposiums and discussion forums for the enlightenment of both faculty and students. Major efforts should continue to be made to recruit and maintain faculty from the culturally unique groups.

Finally, we as educators, teachers, laymen and workers must help the culturally unique groups to attain equality and their rightful places in the nation.

THE CHILDREN'S CENTER

Agnes M. Plenk

Therapeutic nursery schools are few and far between in the whole world. Though much lip service is given to early childhood education on Federal and State governmental levels, not much actual service is given at this time. Some of the most noted theoreticians in the field are already doubting the impact of early intervention (Kagan, Zigler)[1] before we ever got started. It seems to me that we are again throwing out the baby with the bathwater, just as we did thirty years ago with the total eradication of orphanages. Hopefully, we can learn from this experience by setting realistic goals, unemcumbered by political expediencies, by permitting experimentation, and mostly by creating individual programs of significance, rather than "cookie cutter" patterned facilities which must be "computerizable" and yield measureable results.

One of these programs of significance, at least for some of the children in the State of Utah, is The Children's Center. The Children's Center uses activity group therapy[2] as its basic tool of intervention. The children range in age from eighteen months to five years; they are grouped according to chronological and functional age in groups of nine at all age levels, except the youngest, who meet in groups of seven or less.

Group treatment for emotionally disturbed children is still a stepchild in the intervention techniques used with children. The one-to-one medical model, used for the last half-century exclusively, has in many instances been replaced by another one-to-one intervention technique, this time based on learning theory. The argument whether one is better than the other has become pretty academic; some children

and some behaviors are changed for the better with one method, rather than another. It is important to respond to the needs of the child, rather than the training or prejudice of the therapist.

Prior to placement in the group, all families undergo an assessment procedure which consists of a one-to-one standardized session (testing), a developmental history, and a number of group sessions for the children and for the parents. Rather than come up with a specific diagnosis, we try to evaluate strengths and weaknesses and formulate an intervention program to be carried out, either by our agency, or by others in the community. We are particularly cognizant of the difficulty of diagnosis in very young children and frequently avoid it altogether in favor of behavioral descriptions.

Each group is in session daily for three hours with the same two therapists in charge. Two volunteers are also in each group, serving one session a week. The therapists come from all areas of behavioral and health professions; we have extended the artificial "holy trinity" team approach to include teachers, speech pathologists, dance therapists, early childhood educators, parents, para-professionals, high schoolers, grandmothers, big brothers - you name it, we include them.

The program in each group is only a means to an end - free play, snack, group activities, stories, and music are the skeletons on which each therapist hangs his particular skill. I use the word "hangs" purposely, because sometimes highly trained individuals seem to deny the need for a program, relying solely on their therapeutic insight. In activity group therapy, this really does not work. The program is consciously prepared to introduce children to success

experiences, to new vistas, to learning situations not previously encountered; simultaneously, these new situations will not only widen their horizon, provide readiness skills, but equally important, increase the children's self confidence and strengthen or create motivation for change. We do not believe that these goals can be achieved solely by insight.

Children are referred to us from social agencies, physicians, bishops and ministers. Their problems range from childhood autism to developmental deviations. We think this is helpful to the children and the staff. Our real life laboratory material is tremendous. The mute, withdrawn child observes, lives with, and finally imitates the acting-outer, thus changing his behavior and his investment in his symptomatology. The manipulating, emotionally-flat youngster learns to cope with the child whose lack of impulse control confronts him daily. Both unite in their need for immediate gratification, lack of conformity, and limit testing. These are our daily challenges, the trial and tribulations of working with one-hundred emotionally-poorly-functioning children.

We approach the children on the level of their emotional need. Those who have never developed trust, never were truly dependent, need to be mothered and fathered. How can you be independent if you were never dependent? How can you share if you never possessed? We start out in Phase One to provide a model to counteract, or make up for, a sick, immature, overwhelmed, or non-existing parental figure. Our goal during this time is to develop trust, independence, and the beginning of a positive self image. This is done with much giving of oneself, being active, involved, and directive.

In Phase Two, our role changes slightly - we, as therapists, become the supporter, the intervenor, the pattern changer. No child will make changes in his behavior unless he can see the positive reward this change will get him. I am not necessarily talking about reinforcers, though we do use those also. The children verbalize some of their feelings and learn to use alternate behavior patterns. Sometimes, particularly bright children seem to start in Phase Two, do a lot of verbalizing and intellectualizing on an almost adolescent level, but don't really make changes. Then the task before us is to help these children act like children, not pseudo-adults.

Psychotic children are kept in reality as much as possible, are forced to enter into group interaction, and not permitted to withdraw into their own shell. Individual play sessions are added to these children's program.

Our goal with all children is to ready them to enter the mainstream of public education and advance within their age frame. In addition to activity group therapy, many children are seen in individual therapy, speech, or tutoring.

Every effort is made to involve the parents in the ongoing behavioral change of their child. Home visits, crisis intervention, educational groups, single mothers' groups, single fathers' groups, grandparents' groups are some of the modalities used to meet the need of the parent on the level he or she can accept. Many of our parents are so distraught and preoccupied with their own needs that the child needs to make appreciable changes before the parents even notice the positive. Parent groups are conducted by counselors, social workers, psychologists, or child psychiatrists. Most of our adult work is

here-and-now oriented and based on joint contractual agreements. It often proceeds very slowly and painfully. Generational patterns of low self esteem, failure, and loneliness take a long time to erase and redirect.

The back-up services at the Center are one of its major strengths. Continuously ongoing in-service training, weekly consultation and staff meetings, daily report writing, charting of behavioral observations, and lots of cross-communication keeps all of us informed and, hopefully, professionally alert.

Most families stay with us for a twelve month period; some considerably longer. The average stay during the last eight years of our operation has been eleven months.

The non-professional structure of the Agency consists of a volunteer corps of close to one-hundred per week, and an actively involved community Board of Directors. The former does much of our public relations, the latter carries the burden of raising those funds which are needed above the service contracts, the United Way contribution, and the third-party payments. The headaches of administering a private social agency in the Seventies in the United States is another whole presentation; educational perhaps, but quite depressing.

Early in the existence of the Center, it became obvious that there are children who need a total therapeutic environment to make changes in their behavior pattern. A group home situation was created for these children. Six children live in our group home from Monday through Friday; weekends are spent either with parents or foster parents. The demands on the Group Home parents are great and constant. Some of the children who are able to maintain themselves well in day

treatment, burst out in pathology in the living situation. Almost all patterns of everyday life are challenges to our children; the deprivations of home, the series of foster homes, and most of all, the traumatic experiences with parents are all re-enacted and need modification. Conflicts arise between parents, foster parents, and group home parents, which work against the child. Our group home model is still in constant change.

We are asked so frequently about our success rate that we have undertaken a large scale follow-up study. Hopefully, it will be in a reportable form at the time of the Inter-Institutional Seminar.

In addition to service to emotionally handicapped children, the Center is available for consultation. We meet regularly with a large number of Day Care Center operators and teachers; we conduct workshops on assessment, programming, and work with parents. Last, but not least, we participate actively in the training of students in the behavioral sciences and para-professionals. During the last year, eighty-seven graduates and undergraduates participated in our training effort. Unfortunately, we lost our training grant this year and were unable to accept stipend students. The University of Utah came to the rescue, however, with a great group of students through the Student Year in ACTION. We hope in this way to continue our input into the academic community.

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THE MORAL DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

Gladys C. Weaver

Some very curious and exciting discussions are taking place. It is curious that while some people deplore the breakdown in moral value, particularly among youth, the Supreme Court views certain forms of moral education as an infringement upon civil liberties. It is exciting to notice success reports when moral education is based upon stage transition in moral development.

Kohlberg, Kurtz, and others clarify the definition of moral education. In the past, moral education was viewed as indoctrination of the worst sort. Some views consider religious education to be the same as moral education. Kurtz (1972) sees moral education as a continuous process. Kohlberg (1967) views "moral education as completely separable from religion from the point of view of civil liberties."

Kohlberg and Turiel (1972) claim that teachers constantly act as moral educators for they tell children what to do, make evaluations of children's behavior, and direct children's relations in the classroom. When teachers approach moral education from the developmental view, children's level of thinking may be raised.

This presentation examines Kohlberg's stages and levels of moral development. At the close of the presentation you are invited to make comments, raise questions of clarification, or seek further understanding on this topic.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development which emerged from a study of Dewey and Piaget, is briefly presented in table form. At stage zero, the premoral stage, the child has no idea of external authority because good is what is pleasant or exciting and bad is what is painful or

fearful. The child has no idea of obligation, "should," or "have to" and is guided only by "can do" and "want to do."

The preconventional level finds the child responsive to cultural rules and labels of good and bad, right or wrong. The child interprets these labels in terms of punishment, reward, exchange of favors or in terms of the physical power of those who enunciate the rules and labels. There are two stages at this level. Stage one has the punishment and obedience orientation in which the child obeys rules to avoid punishment. The child talks about how authority figures will react, whether there will be punishment or reward and whether there is a good or bad label.

The instrumental relativist orientation is stage two in which the child conforms to obtain rewards and talks about the needs and motives of others and the idea that one good turn deserves another. Focus is not on loyalty, gratitude, or justice but on "you scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours."

At the conventional level the child maintains the expectations of the individual's family, group, or nation for these are valuable in their own right regardless of immediate and obvious consequences. The attitude is conformity to personal expectations and social order, loyalty to it, actively maintaining, supporting, and justifying the order and identifying with persons or groups involved in it.

This level is divided into two stages. Stage three is the good-boy--nice-girl orientation where approval is earned by being "nice." A child at this stage is concerned with what others think. The child means well and talks about the feelings of others, what others expect and approve, what a "good" person would do, and the child conforms to avoid disapproval. Stage four has the law and order orientation toward

authority, fixed rules, and the maintenance of the social order. Here the child views right behavior as doing one's duty, showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. The child conforms to avoid censure.

At the post-conventional level there is a clear effort to define moral values and principles which have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups or persons holding these principles and apart from identification with these groups. At stage five there is a social-contract legalistic orientation where moral values are defined in terms of individual rights and standards agreed upon by the whole society. The child conforms to maintain respect. At this stage the child realizes that right action is a matter of personal opinion except where right has been constitutionally and democratically agreed upon according to proper procedures. The child's thinking emphasizes the legal point of view with the possibility of changing the law for the benefit of society rather than rigidly maintaining law and order.

At the universal ethical principal stage, right is defined by a decision of conscience in accord with self-chosen ethical principles of justice, reciprocity and equality of human rights, and respect for the dignity of each human being. At this stage the individual conforms to avoid self-condemnation.

This theory views the child's growth as structural-developmental. Both experimental and longitudinal research demonstrate that each stage is a reorganization of the previous stage and a transformation of thought and action. Each stage describes how moral judgments are made and how moral values are defined. Turiel (1973) stresses that with developmental changes in the structure or organization of thinking, the child interprets the content of the social environment in new ways.

Studies of children and adults from a Malaysian aboriginal village, a Turkish city and village, and a Mayan Indian village demonstrate a universal sequence in the development of basic moral values.

At least three principles have emerged from studies of development change. First, children move through stages in a stepwise sequential fashion, no stage can be skipped. Second, there is a natural developmental progression and third, a stage is not learned but constructed by children themselves.

Programs of classroom discussions of moral conflict stories among children and an experimenter, showed that exposure to ideas at the stage just above a child's own stage may influence that child's moral thinking, exposure to ideas of stages further above or immediately below the child's stage seem to have little influence on the child's thinking.

KOHLBERG'S MORAL DEVELOPMENT THEORY

Levels	Stages	Motivation
	0 - Premoral	0 - No idea of external authority
Preconventional	1 - Punishment & Obedience	1 - Obey rules to avoid punishment
	2 - Instrumental Relativist	2 - Conform to obtain rewards
Conventional	3 - Good-boy -- nice-girl	3 - Conform to avoid disapproval
	4 - Law and Order	4 - Conform to avoid censure
Post-Conventional	5 - Social-contract legalistic	5 - Conform to maintain respect
	6 - Universal ethical principle	6 - Conform to avoid self-condemnation

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REACHING A LEARNING OBJECTIVE IN THE AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

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Introduction

This paper reports how the authors collaborated in determining the affective needs of a child, devised learning objectives in the affective domain, and elicited performance from the child until the affective goals were reached.

The project described is typical of the very precise programs for exceptional children which are insisted upon by the Department of Special Education at Utah State University. Each training area in the Department emphasizes careful construction of learning objectives in the cognitive domain. Much effort goes into helping students in educational assessment of pupil needs, choice of instructional materials, careful programming, and evaluation of results. When the child, as in this case, is severely handicapped by emotional problems, these efforts are directed towards affective needs also.

Children and youth with serious deficiencies in academic and social behavior present great problems in American schools. Utah standards for classrooms for seriously emotionally disturbed children state that children selected for the programs must, among other criteria, have behavioral problems which have

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existed for some time and must show marked academic lag in some major curriculum area.[1] It is accepted practice to work with the disturbed child on his academic deficiencies since success in school is usually accompanied by improved social behaviors.

Selected Case Study Material

S has just completed grade 7 in a local junior high school. His elementary school records indicate normal learning ability, minimally successful academic achievement, adequate physical development, and very poor social relationship skills. He was not referred during his elementary school years for possible placement in one of the local programs for seriously disturbed children.

S was referred for observation and assessment at the very first opportunity by one of his seventh grade teachers. The problem was presented as one of complete isolation from his peers, of immature dependency upon teacher and associate teacher, of refusal to participate in many assignments, and of certain inappropriate (silly or vague) responses in conversation.

S is one of several children of parents who completed a divorce during this past year. He has moved twice, once out of the school district, but his mother transported him daily to the local school during this period. Thus, S experienced continuity of school experience despite discontinuity in his home.

Overview of the Total Process

1. Observation and data collection

   a. Fall Quarter: the second author observed S in an English class, tabulated specific behaviors, and had

the class answer a question from which she constructed a sociogram.

b. Spring Quarter: the first author repeated the above procedures and added observations on the playground and in physical education classes.

c. Both quarters: both authors conferred with teachers and attended project meetings where S was staffed. The first author also conferred extensively with a school counselor who had, unbeknown to the authors, begun to include S in a few counseling sessions.

2. Construction of learning objectives

a. After a study of the English class, of data about S, and of the dynamics represented by the sociogram, the second author framed learning objectives to be carried out under the direction of the teacher associate in the English class during Winter Quarter. At this time she also suggested certain learning experiences which would promote the objectives. These objectives, when accomplished, would make it necessary for S to interact successfully with certain peers. It was inconsequential which particular instructional materials would be used and no evaluation of precise cognitive growth was built into the objectives. They were clearly in the area of attitude change.

The teacher associate did not implement this plan and left shortly thereafter. The first author was then assigned to the project as a part of a field experience with exceptional children.

b. The first author then rewrote learning objectives so they could be implemented with the cooperation of the teachers in the English class.

3. Teaching for the objectives

The first author spent approximately 70 hours with S and/or a few of his peers. Activities included

a. individual work with S on the SRA Developmental Reading Program.

b. individual work with S on reading an adult book.

c. individual and group work on a mythology notebook, according to each student's "contract."

d. group work on a mythology bulletin board.

e. group work on a special mythology project (8 mm film and cassette).

4. Evaluation of the project

Since each objective was reached, certain social behaviors were added temporarily to S's repertoire. If they continue to be practiced, it can be assumed that these behaviors will be reinforced positively and gradually become an integral force in his "personality." The first author helped S and his group with a short 8 mm film which illustrates one kind of activity found to be very useful in reaching the objectives. It demonstrates that the choice of activity flows naturally but not inexorably from a carefully framed objective.

Selected Data Used in Framing the Learning Objectives

1. S reading behaviors as determined by data tabulation

   a. He chooses all books from an elementary school library and refuses to withdraw any from the junior high school library.

   b. He reads books of 1-50 pages, in large print, with many pictures of young children.

   c. He does all his reports orally to the teachers without sharing these with his classmates.

   d. He reads required grade 7 texts easily.

2. S behaviors towards peers as determined by data tabulation

   a. He interrupts conversations, then withdraws; he "bothers" peers when they are busy.

   b. He reads or gazes when group activities are going on.

   c. He seats himself at the back of the row or away from others.

   d. He volunteers to operate projectors, tape recorders, record players, etc., thus removing himself from regular classroom activity.

e. He rejects his classmates' attempts at being friendly by making obscene gestures and by insulting them verbally.

f. He tells bizarre lies about his activities outside school.

3. S behaviors with adults

a. He demands help when he both knows the process involved and has started to demonstrate that he has that knowledge by beginning his assignments.

b. He engages adults in "off task" and bizarre topics.

c. He follows his teachers around the room while they are attempting to help other students individually.

d. He telephones his teachers at home to ask questions about homework that he is capable of doing.

e. He generally goes to each of his classes after school to "say goodbye" to his teachers.

4. Results of sociogram

a. Fall Quarter - Each pupil was given a printed list of the names of class members and asked to underline three with whom the pupil would like to work on a literature project. They were guaranteed at least one of their choices. S was one of two children picked by none of the other 33. S, in turn, picked as two of his choices pupils who were not available due to counseling or special reading classes. Thus, S emerged as a definite isolate.

b. Spring Quarter - Each pupil was given a printed list of the names of class members and asked to underline three with whom each would like to work on a mythology project. They were guaranteed at least one of their choices. S was picked this time by one student, who was also one of his choices. He was placed in a group with students whom he chose and who had chosen each other. The student who chose S on this second sociogram was absent on the day that the sociogram was developed during Fall Quarter. But this does not necessarily account for the difference between the two sociograms. There was considerable difference in all of the students' choices.

5. Classroom activities

When the first author started his field experience, the

English class was ready to begin a unit on mythology. The teachers provided contract sheets which gave pupils a number of individual and group projects from which to choose. They encouraged the writer to develop any project which would engage S in healthy interaction with peers.

Learning Objectives Which Developed from the Data

1. Fall Quarter

   a. S will show pleasure in individual activities related to reading one "adult" book.

   b. S will show willingness to participate in a project chosen by his group.

   c. S will direct one activity of his group.

   d. S will share (as leader) one activity completed by his group with his English class.

After the second author spent three class hours with S in the library and correcting his daily assignments, she devised the following specific objectives which, if achieved, would insure reaching the objectives stated above.

   a. S will read the book Ginger Pye.

   b. S will work with adults in setting up activities for a Ginger Pye packet.

   c. S will direct the learning activities for the packet, with adult assistance in leadership of his group.

   d. S will take a copy of the packet materials to one elementary school library which also has the book.

   e. S will either himself write or approve for publication in the school paper an article about the packet.

Since all of these objectives were to be tied into group activities, it was necessary to write group objectives also.

   a. Four pupils will work together at least four times on activities connected with Ginger Pye.

b. The group will produce materials for a packet which will make it easy and interesting to use Ginger Pye as a basis for total class learning.

c. The group will show their materials to their own class and to the library staff.

d. Each group member will then serve as a resource person as other groups work on literature projects.

Some group learning experiences were planned. For example, using a headphone listening station and a commercially prepared cassette synopsis of Ginger Pye, the four pupils in S's group were to

(1) write down ideas for class projects about the book,

(2) write down any hard words they heard.

Other planned activities were to make slides of single words on the vocabulary list they framed, make multiple choice transparencies and individual vocabulary lists, make short tapes of exciting passages or ideas from the book.

2. Spring Quarter

The urgency of S's situation by Spring Quarter led to renewed attempts to reach the original affective domain objectives listed above. It was agreed that

a. S will read a full length book appropriate to his grade level.

b. S will have at least three positive experiences interacting with his peers in class.

Highlights of the Project

After bringing the unread book to class every day for nearly two weeks, S finally began to read Brian's Song. This was his first attempt at reading a full length adult book. His progress was slow, but with a great deal of encouragement he was

finally successful in completing the book in three weeks. Further efforts in encouraging him to read another book appropriate to his grade level were unsuccessful.

The first assignment given to S's group was to develop a mythology bulletin board for the classroom. The strategy was to give S all the information required for completing the assignment and he, in turn, was to pass this along to his group. In order to complete the assignment, S was forced to interact with the other members of his group. Even with the situation structured in this way it could not be said that S was a leader in the group but the assignment was completed on time, which resulted in a positive experience for S.

The same strategy was applied to the second and major assignment of the grading period. This project was to make an 8 mm film about a mythological character, to write narration, to tape the narration, and to present the film to peers. (This film will be shown to you here today also.) Each day S was given all the information required for completing the next step of the project. In order to complete each step of the project he was forced to interact positively with the other members of his group. Only two weeks were allowed for completion of the project, so success was dependent upon a concentrated group effort. At no time did S become a real leader of the group but at no time did he fail to contribute to the group effort. Each day was taken as a separate step in the project and the objective for each day included some provision which required that S interact positively with the other members of his group.

The final assignment of the grading period was for each student to develop a mythology notebook according to his own contract as set up with the English teachers. With some help and encouragement S was the first student in the class to complete his notebook. S spent an entire day sharing the information and ideas in his notebook with the other members of the class and helping them finish their own notebooks. This was the bonus hoped for since the beginning of the project.

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

A seventh grade boy was encouraged to try new ways of interacting with peers and adults through the work of special education personnel. These activities took place in his regular English class and were based on the cognitive objectives of the literature program. A number of affective domain objectives specific to the needs of this one boy were framed to be met in a period of two months.

The project demonstrated that it is possible to plan and execute procedures which insure changed social behaviors within a regular class framework for a seriously disturbed pre-adolescent. At no time did the authors emphasize cognitive goals for themselves as teachers or for the pupil as learner. Objectives in the affective domain are essential in the educational program for seriously disturbed children and youth. Leaving such objectives to chance is indefensible. The key to success is in

(1) collecting data on the need gap of the student in terms of personal-social behaviors,

(2) framing each objective from a starting point of the gap between where he is and what he must accomplish, and

(3) modifying, eliminating, or expanding learning experiences which help the student reach the objective.

This particular project was both aided and limited by at least two variables:

(1) S's teachers were increasingly active in providing individualized instruction over the school year for all pupils, and

(2) the counselor began special work with S during the year.

Thus, no claim can be made that the field experience project was the cause of S's more adequate interactions.

Educators concerned with the behavioral problems of children are urged to specify the attitudinal and value changes needed by the children. Careful planning for affective domain behaviors should lead to improved personal-social behaviors elicited by the children for whom educators plan.

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Dealing with the "I Don't Give a Damn" Syndrome

Dr. Ronald G. Petrie

In this day of innovation in education and teacher training programs we find educators (myself included) who are running pell mell to develop new programs to "meet the needs of society" without (I fear) ever really analyzing what it is we are teaching or why we are teaching the things that we do. We should analyze the ills of society so that we could design a program to meet those needs before we proceed.

If we think for a moment about society's problems we can identify such things as: mental health; mental illness; our country's continued involvement in internal affairs of other countries; the credibility of our government; and seemingly a whole middle-class population that apparently doesn't "give a damn". They don't care even when informed about problems that exist, and do little if anything to try to correct those problems.

In addition, our schools continue to turn out large numbers of students who cannot read, write, and communicate effectively even though they have been in schools that have spent millions and billions of federal and state dollars to help them overcome their educational deficiencies.

The purpose of this paper will be to try to explore some of the reasons (1) why people don't "give a damn" and, (2) why children don't learn to read, and to offer some solutions and changes that need to take place if those two problems are ever to be corrected.

The "I don't give a damn" syndrome

Recent testimony concerning the Watergate affair and current disclosures that the United States has been bombing in Cambodia previous to 1970 have brought to light that leaders in our government (in the highest

places) have lied, cheated, broken the law and otherwise have stooped to heretofore unthinkable and unspeakable levels of chicanery. Yet the public seems apathetic to the whole situation.

I could cite a host of similar examples of deceit but that probably isn't necessary. What is important is that the government's official position has been to attack the press and communication systems for being "irresponsible". A large body of middle-class America (who want to believe in the Presidency and in authority) believed what they were told, and still do. They believe because of an insidious thing that happened to us in the last twenty or twenty-five years.

What has happened is that we have become a victim of the "communication media". Since the advent of television (specifically), more and more communication has come down from the top to the people at the bottom. This unto itself is not bad. What is bad is that there is no way for the people to respond back to the top through the media. It is a one-way street. Before television the principle source of communication was newspapers, magazines, town meetings, and other people-related types of activities. It took time to get information out. People debated. People talked and discussed, but no more.

One could argue that we have a "representative form of government" because we have congressmen and senators who are elected by the people. Some representatives and senators do a good job, but, by and large they listen to and are controlled by people in powerful positions who represent specific points of view. They in turn (without necessarily wanting to) end up representing those points of view, which may or may not be the representative views of the people as a whole.

If our society is going to keep up with change and constantly be flexible to meet the demands of its new problems and meet the challenge

of its new goals, then it must have a population that is able to think for itself, and more important, that the population must have a way to communicate effectively with those that are in positions of responsibility and trust.

Challenge for the Schools

It seems to me that probably the most fundamental and basic thing that we can teach children to do in school is to think. At this point some of you may snicker and say, "Well, isn't that what we do?" I would have to reply, "I'm not so sure." Are we really teaching children to question authority? Do teachers have the right and the power to provide that type of instruction? Aren't teachers in fact controlled by lay boared which have been, and are controlled and manipulated by the mass media? How long would a teacher last in a rural community if children or students from a high school modern problems class sat in on a city countil meeting and questioned the tactics or the rationale of the members of the city council? Not long, I'll wager. Shouldn't students be taught to weight all sides of an issue; to question even the teacher concerning his or her own prejudices and points of view?

I've questioned many teachers concerning these previous statements and they all indicate to some degree that they think that they are teaching children to think. But are they really? Do teachers themselves really question the authority of people who teach them? My experience is that they do not. All we really do is give lip service to something that, in fact, fundamentally does not happen.

The Inquiry Approach

It appears to me that there are at least two things that have to change before we will be able to produce people who do think about the

place that they live, the society they belong to, where it is going, and why. First of all, children in the public school have to be taught, using what I loosely describe as the "inquiry approach". Simply stated this means that we start in the elementary grades (at the lowest level), teaching children to use higher level thought processes and questioning strategies to do problem solving. If we establish a problem-solving approach to education throughout the whole system and practice it as teachers, training teachers to use this approach effectively, in a decade we may start to turn out children who as young adults do attack problems from a logical base to (in fact) find the "truth".

Another thing that we are going to have to do is to learn to use the media to the people's advantage. It means that we are going to have to learn to use the media more effectively so that the people can respond to the government so that more people can participate in the response. Instead of a congressman or a senator coming back from Washington, D. C. and meeting with his old friends to get answers to the old questions that he already has answers to before, (which he merely wants reconfirmed) let's put the congressman or senator in a place where he responds to what the people ask. Let's not let the President of the United States take prime television time to tell us his side of the story without having someone from the other side of the story respond in kind. Let's have great debates using the media. Let's trust in the judgment of the American people.

There is great concern on the part of many people in power positions that the average American is a slob and not to be trusted with important decisions. I believe that the American population is intelligent and they can be made responsible (again), if we make an effort (through education) to change our directions and help them get the facts and information so that they can make the proper decisions. It's not completely lost yet, but we are losing it, and unless we do something fairly soon in a fairly

comprehensive way I think that our whole system of life and revitalization is in jeopardy.

Teaching Children to Read, Write and Communicate

As stated previously in the introduction I will attempt to point out one of the reasons, (probably the most fundamental reason) why children have difficulty learning to read, write and communicate effectively. I believe that almost all of what we might call "knowledge" is in fact language. I believe that if you understand a "subject", what you really understand is its language. A discipline is a way of knowing and whatever is known is inseparable from the symbols (mostly words) in which the knowing is codified. What is biology (for example) other than words? If all the words that biologists use were subtracted from the language, there would be no biology, unless and until new words were invented.* What is any subject without words to describe it? Let each of you (at this point) close your eyes, sit back, and try to think of any subject without using words.

Can you think of anything that does not require words or symbols (such as numbers) to describe it? Maybe you can, but I've never been able to.

Isn't this the same problem then that exists for children? Is it possible that the real problem that a child has from any minority culture, or deprived situation, or just any child that has difficulty with reading and communication, is that he may not really perceive or have the language to express himself in his own mind and in his own thought processes? I think so.

* Weingartner and Postman, "Teaching as a Subversive Activity", page 102

Fifteen years of experience working with minority groups and particularly children from other cultures (Spanish-speaking) have reinforced over and over again the basic principle that a child has to be able to speak the word and have a visual image of what that word means in his own mind before he can really learn to read it; before he can write it; and before he can communicate it effectively.

How much time is spent (in a classroom situation) where children talk, discuss, discover, develop, and learn a vocabulary about a subject that they were trying to study? How many times does a teacher work with a group of children to specifically teach them words (and symbols for words) and help them to make their own mental pictures, and in turn place those mental pictures in their own mental filing cabinet for future use? We do a lot of this sort of thing in kindergarten, first and second grade, but somewhere in the primary grades we quit doing it. Various research studies show that about 90 percent of the time that children are in classrooms the teacher is doing all the talking. She is talking down to the students, there is no two-way communication where the students are talking back to the teacher. The teacher in effect is not really checking to find out what it is that a child does or doesn't know in terms of verbal symbols.

Effective Schools

If we want our schools to be effective they must be student-centered schools, question-centered schools, and they must also be language-centered schools. Every teacher should be a teacher of language. They should all teach the language of subject matter. They must teach the content, and the questioning that goes with that content, so that children learn to learn.

Most elementary teachers have heard of the "language experience" approach to teaching reading. I've always been suprised that no one has really identified the language experience approach to teaching mathematics,

science, social studies, art, music, ad infinitum. My statements are not meant to imply that there aren't some skills to be learned along with language development in order to become a better reader per se. What I'm trying to say is that the use of language or "languaging" is probably the most fundamental aspect of our educational process and is probably one of the least used in a conscious, specified, specific, approach.

I shall not try in this paper to cover all of the fine points of language developemtn. I'm sure most of you can look that up in a number of books. If you want one reference that may help put you on to an approach as well as give you food for thought (in other areas) I would suggest that you look at the book, Teaching as a Subversive Activity, by Postman and Weingartner, pages 106-108.

Summary

In this paper I have attempted to identify two areas that need to be incorporated into our educational system if the system is to become revitalized to meet the future needs of our society. Those areas are: (1) improved communication utilizing mass media in new ways so that communication becomes a two-way street between those governing and those being governed; and (2) that children must be taught (throughout the entire educational system) by way of an "inquiry approach" so that they learn to think, to ask questions, to look at all sides of an issue and to become responsible, responsive citizens. To do this, the mass media must be manipulated to inform and educate the public to demand and expect that children will be taught how to think and ask questions and study all sides of an issue in school, in much the same way that the media was used to educate the public about the ills of cigarette smoking and the rape of the environment. Until the mass media has been brought to bear, to change the thinking of the population as a whole, nothing will likely happen.

I believe that all children (baring mental deficiency) can learn to communicate and read effectively if every teacher becomes a teacher of language--if in fact, teachers establish a two-way system of communication with students so that there is talking and development of thought, words, and vocabulary that become part of the student's total mental process.

PREREQUISITES FOR DEVELOPING CRITICAL READING SKILLS

Dr. Deon Stevens

Four diplomats not too well acquainted with the English language were discussing the wife of a colleague. Said the first, "It's a pity about her condition. I don't know what they call it, but she can't have children." The second replied, "Oh, yes, she's impregnable." "Not at all," said the third, "She's inconceivable." "Gentlemen," declared the fourth, "you are all wrong. What she is is unbearable."

According to Triggs, the meaning which is attributed to written symbols in any reading situation is not intrinsic within the passage but is actually supplied by the reader. My concern today is that as we attempt to teach critical reading to our students we guarantee to our own satisfaction that they, the students, are ready for critical reading, do they have the proper background experiences requisite for critical reading?

Heilman relates a story told by Cole (Cole, Louella, The Improvement of Reading, New York, Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1938) of a student in a chemistry class who asked his instructor for help in understanding the law: "The volume of a gas is inversely proportional to its density." The instructor tried without success to explain the concept embodied in the law. Finally, he asked the boy to define volume of gas, density, and inversely porportional. The boy had only one concept for volume--a book; gas what what is used in a stove; density meanth thickness; he had no concept to go with inversely proportional.

What about word meanings and their relationship with critical reading? Do words have different meanings for different people? Triggs tells us readers supply meaning for the words. What meanings, feelings do you supply for the following words?

kitten	slender	cheap	hen
vision	cat	moose	duck
mouse	lamb	chicken	liar
sheep	deer	skinny	goose

Call a woman a kitten, but never a cat.
You can call her a mouse, cannot call her a rat.
Call a woman a chicken, but never a hen
Or you surely will not be her caller again.

You can call her a duck, cannot call her a goose.
You can call her a deer, but never a moose.
You can call her a lamb, but never a sheep.
Economy she likes, but you can't call her cheap.

You can say she's a vision, can't say she's a sight,
And no woman is skinny, she is slender and slight.
If she should burn you up, say she sets you afire,
And you'll always be welcome, you tricky old liar.

Although students may have word meaning, may understand or give some definition for individual words, still as teachers we can't assume class agreement for all words. For example

What meanings can you get from the following words:

1. The natives are having the missionary for dinner.
2. He looked over the old wall.
3. Jim is renting the house.
4. He pulled on the dumb waiter.
5. She looked mean from the window.
6. They could not find a nicer boy.

As we teach children to read, do we mistakenly lead them to believe that the word is the thing? Piaget asks, "Are names in the subject or the object? Are they signs or things? Have they been discovered by observation or chosen without any objective reason?"

(The story tells of Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden. "What's that?" asks one. "That's a bear," is the answer. "How do you know?" "Because it looks like a bear!")

Which word is heavier feather or elephant.

A missionary to Malaya had a son named Bobby. The Malay children, he noticed, avoided Bobby like a plague. After some investigation, the missionary learned that Bobby sounded like babi, which is Malay for "pig." The word/object association was too great. The Malay are Muslim and have no regard at all for the pig. Bobby became Robert and the problem ceased.

As children are taught critical reading they must have an understanding of the different way words are used.

I have a cartoon strip, B.C., by John A. Hart. Let me describe it to you. The leader is standing before a group of four persons and he makes the comment, "Mankind will never master the art of communication." Each member of the group in turn makes the following comments: "absurd", "ridiculous", "tommy-rot", "hog-wash". The person talking to the group appears to be picking something up from the ground. "O.K. what's this?" is his comment. Again the responses from the four people: "ground", "soil", "earth", "dirt". In the final frame his comment as he discards the material and walks away: "The prosecution rests." The ability to select the appropriate meaning of a particular word which has many meanings is essential for critical reading.

What about figurative language? Picture, if you will, the possibilities conjured up in the following phrases:

- She ironed out all the bottlenecks.
- Another Indian bit the dust.
- The ship plows the ocean.
- Boats were dancing up and down on the waves.
- Food and drink are on the house.
- The game is all tied up.
- He hit the road.
- She is two faced.
- He brought down the house.

And what is the difference between a house being burned up or a house being burned down?

Heilman presents a passage filled with expressions which probably will pose no problems for you, but which mystify a child who reads slowly or literally.

Joe, flying down the stairs, rested his ey_ on the hawk. Grandfather buried his nose in a book and acted as if he were completely in the dark. Grandmother and Sue put their heads together and tried to figure out which way the wind was blowing. Joe tipped his hand by carrying the gun. On the spur of the moment Grandmother hit the nail on the head. Cool as a cucumber she called to Joe, "Freeze in your tracks and put that gun back upstairs!" Joe's spirits fell as his grandmother's words took the wind out of his sail. He flew off the handle and told about the hawk. "That's a horse of a different color," said Grandmother, satisfied that she

had dug up the facts. "Let the boy alone," said Grandfather, "he will keep the wolf from the door." Outside Joe thought, "I'd better make hay while the sun shines," as he drew a bead on the hawk.

Ruth Flamond lists three conditions which she feels are most important for critical reading: one, complete understanding of what is read; two, a propensity to be skeptical, analytical, and inquiring; and three, the application of critical reading skills which have been specifically taught and developed. Cushenbery tells us that reading critically is a relatively slow phrase by phrase, sentence by sentence operation and requires careful attention and concentration of the reader.

With an understanding of and a respect for word meanings, expressions, figurative language, the reader is ready to be skeptical, analytical, and inquiring. Indeed, if an effort has been made to sensitize the reader he will be a critical reader, interested in the way the words are being used to convey the author's message.

Perhaps the very best statement descriptive of critical reading is found in Mortimer Adler's How to Read a Book. "When they (students) are in love and are reading a love letter, they read for all they are worth. They read every word three ways; they read between the lines and in the margins; they read the whole in terms of the parts, and each part in terms of the whole; they grow sensitive to context and ambiguity, to insinuation and implication; they perceive the color of words, the odor of phrases, the the weight of sentences. They may even take the punctuation into account. Then, if never before or after, they read."

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A T E P - An Alternative

by Ione Garcia
Ladd Holt
Don Uhlenberg

General Information

That the traditional approach to teacher education has not been very helpful in preparing new teachers to cope with the demands of classroom teaching is a view held by a large number of educators working in the field. Teachers commonly complain that education classes, with their emphasis on theory, prescribed learning, and rigid lecture and textbook methods simply haven't prepared them to function in the teaching role.

Although late in responding, teacher educators in institutions all over the country are beginning to examine their courses and programs and instituting a variety of innovations in courses and programs. One such program is the Alternate Teacher Education Program (ATEP) for elementary majors at the University of Utah.

In the spring of 1972, we three, Ladd Holt, Ione Garcia, and Don Uhlenberg, began a series of discussions regarding our dissatisfaction with the traditional approach, tried to formulate our thoughts on what teacher education ought to be like, and explored alternatives for implementing our ideas. The result was the Alternate Teacher Education Program which we planned to start Fall quarter 1972. Students were admitted on an interest and first-come first-serve basis and were required only to have at least 3 quarters remaining before graduation. The program got under way Fall quarter with 42 students enrolled.

The philosophical base for the program is humanistic in nature and attempts to offer students a variety of alternatives while at the same time requiring that they take more and more responsibility for their own learning. Much of the theoretical aspects of the program are drawn from the work of Art Combs and his colleagues at the University of Florida in the area of self- or perceptual psychology.

Some Basic Assumptions

A. Behavior in general

1. That people behave according to the choices they make from among the alternatives they perceive to be available to them at the instant of behaving.
2. That behavior is always a result of how a person sees himself, how he views the situation in which he is involved, and the interaction between the two.
3. That the fundamental motivation for all persons is the desire for feelings of personal adequacy, self-actualization, and high self-esteem.

B. Knowledge

1. That the quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing. Knowledge is a means of education, not its end.
2. That knowledge is a function of one's personal integration of experience and therefore does not fall into neatly separate categories or disciplines.
3. That it is possible, even likely, that a person may learn and possess knowledge of a phenomenon and yet

be unable to display it publicly. Knowledge resides with the knower, not in its public expression.

C. Learning

1. That learning has two aspects; the acquisition of new information and the discovery of personal meaning of that information.
2. That it is more important to learn a few concepts than many facts.
3. That learning is more efficient and meaningful if the learner has a felt need to know.
4. That people learn more easily and rapidly if they help make important decisions about their learning.
5. That people learn and develop intellectually not only at their own rate but in their own style.
6. That verbal abstraction should follow direct experience with objects and ideas, not precede or substitute for them.
7. That pressures on students become threats manifesting themselves in behaviors such as cheating, avoidance, fearfulness, and a shutting off of communication.

D. Teaching and Teacher Education

1. That no specific method or technique nor any single body of knowledge has been shown to be essential for effective teaching.
2. That objectivity is not very useful for teaching. Subjective caring, concern and involvement are much more significant.

4. That teachers are more effective if they possess high levels of self-esteem and are self-actualizing people.

5. That learning to teach is more a process of becoming, than of learning how to do. Students must learn methods that work best for them.

E. Evaluation

1. That errors are necessarily a part of the learning process; they are to be expected and even desired, for they contain information essential for further learning.

2. That those aspects of a person's learning which can easily be quantified and carefully measured are not necessarily the most important.

3. Objective measures often may have a negative effect upon learning.

4. That learning is best assessed intuitively by direct observation over long periods of time.

Aims and Objectives of ATEP

Statement of the fundamental aim of ATEP: To help prospective teachers learn to use themselves in the most effective ways in order to bring about the goals and aims of education.

To achieve this fundamental aim the program seeks to assist each student to:

1. Be well informed. The elementary teacher is a generalist and as such must achieve and maintain a broad, well-

rounded knowledge of the content areas to be dealt with in the school.

2. Have accurate perceptions about what people are like. The student must have a clear and consistent frame of reference from which to operate in making decisions regarding children and their learning.
3. Acquire and maintain perceptions of himself which lead to feelings of self-adequacy. He must see himself as someone who is able, worthy and competent as a person and as a future teacher.
4. Have accurate perceptions about the purposes of the nation, the community, the administration, the parents, the children and himself as a teacher.
5. Be aware of the various methods of teaching so that he can discover those which suit his own unique self in the process of helping children learn.

Structure of the Program

The program consists of five main parts: Field Requirements, Seminar, Conference, Substantive Panel, and Individual Study.

1. Field Experience. The student immediately becomes actively engaged in some aspect of teaching when he enters the program. In consultation with his seminar leader, he selects a level of classroom teaching at which to begin, after considering his previous experience, level of maturity, and other factors. The levels begin with observation and tutoring within classrooms and culminate in student teaching. He is expected to plan field

experiences in a variety of socio-economic settings and grade levels. Students are expected to keep a diary or journal of the problems, successes, insights, and feelings experienced in the field.

2. Seminar. Students are assigned to a seminar group. Members of the seminar group, including the faculty seminar leader, work together for the balance of the time the student remains in the program. The seminar provides for guidance and counseling, and open discussion with fellow students and seminar leaders about educational practices and theories and how these relate to him as a person and a professional. The seminar also serves as a major source of information about program activities.

3. Conferences. Individual conferences with the student's seminar leader take place at the beginning of the quarter to plan and establish the student's personal program; during the middle of the quarter to check his progress; at the end to evaluate his work; and at any other time deemed necessary by the student or his seminar leader. Through the conferences, an active record is kept of his activities which represents a continual picture of him and his reactions to his experiences within the program.

4. Substantive Panel. The substantive panel is made up of faculty members of varying specialties, specifically these 10: Social foundations of education; Psychological foundations of education: Math; Art; Language arts; Reading; Social Studies; Science; Research, testing, and

evaluation; and Curriculum. Members of the substantive panel contribute by assisting in the development of competencies the student is expected to demonstrate and to participate through personal talks, lectures, discussions, tapes, bibliographies, etc.

5. Individual Studies. Each quarter the student will, with the help of the seminar leader, plan an individual program of study to become proficient in the various content areas. He is encouraged to utilize a variety of resources to pursue his areas of concern including: work with the seminar leader and members of the substantive panel, books, journals, films, tapes, field trips, observations, interviews, etc. The student is then expected to demonstrate his proficiencies through production activities such as papers, research findings, presentations, the creation of teaching aids, implementation of teaching units, etc.

Evaluation

Each quarter the student is evaluated during the individual conferences held with his seminar leader. Data to be used in making these evaluations is supplied through:

a. A school experience evaluation form completed by both the student and his cooperating teacher twice each quarter.
b. A personal evaluation submitted each quarter by each student in written form.
c. A written evaluation form completed by the seminar leader at the end of each quarter.

All evaluations are discussed during the final conference and filed in the student's record for future reference. Grades are issued in the normal way.

First Year Evaluation

Evaluation data is based on feedback from students, University seminar leaders, cooperating teachers and principals.

Strengths of the Program

The field experience offered the greatest advantage to the participants of this program.

The first quarter was the most frustrating and difficult for the participants. Much of the first quarter was spent learning how to function and survive in an elementary classroom. Since the program is reality based it confronted students with real problem-solving situations involving real students.

The second quarter was much more comfortable for most students. Most discovered they had a number of inadequacies in discipline and motivation techniques and in knowledge of subject matter. However, they did not perceive these as being insurmountable obstacles. Ease in relating to children acquired during the first quarter allowed them now to turn their efforts toward working on their personal deficiencies.

Through the field experience most students were exposed to several or all areas of the school curriculum. Involvement in the teaching process necessitated exploration into the content areas. Some students were involved in the program for three consecutive

quarters. Each quarter was spent at a different grade level and at a different school. Therefore the students were exposed to various age and grade levels of children, various teachers' techniques, various types of school settings and various texts and materials in all the content areas. Involvement with several grade levels afforded the opportunity for students to decide which grade they ultimately desired to teach. Previous involvement in classrooms also made the student teaching experience less traumatic for the student. By student teaching time most students had arrived at an individual teaching style derived from their own philosophy, the philosophies of other teachers and educational theory. It is always difficult, if not impossible, to practice one's own philosophy of teaching in a student teaching situation.

The extended school involvement allowed students an opportunity to learn first-hand about the functioning of an elementary school. Most had frequent interactions with the principal, the secretary, the custodian and other teachers. Many also attended staff meetings, P.T.A. meetings and some were involved in parent-teacher conferences. Through all these experiences they could "try-on" the role of teacher. Most arrived at fairly accurate perceptions about their purpose as a teacher. Soul-searching and interaction with cooperating teachers, their peer group and the seminar leader helped refine their perceptions in many areas. Those students who did not see themselves as being able, worthy and competent as a future teacher left the program and most left the field of education. Of the twelve who left the program, ten dropped out of education.

The close involvement in the public schools gave most students a feeling of being worthwhile. They came to realize how important their presence and services were to the cooperating teacher and the children. The students also developed a realistic, practical frame of reference regarding children and their learning. Conception of learning theories originated through practical basic experiences with students in a classroom setting. Repeated interactions with a variety of cooperating teachers aided in the refinement of a frame of reference about children and the realities of the classroom situation.

The basic structure of the ATEP program encouraged openness, honesty and trust. Some students became open and honest with each other, and almost all students developed an open and trusting relationship with the university faculty involved in the program. Some students, who had been together in a seminar for three quarters, developed a real feeling of concern for each other. Students gave honest feedback regarding the program throughout the year. Studen representatives sat in on all faculty planning sessions and had an equal voice in making decisions about the program. As a result, the students felt a responsibility for the credibility of the program. Individual conferences between the student and seminar leader were also very valuable. This allowed a close relationship to develop, and individual questions and concerns were handled during this time.

Weaknesses of the Program

The seminar was probably the least beneficial experience offered by the program. Ideally, it should have been as beneficial

as the field experience. However, the diversity of individuals in terms of interests, personality and experience made discussion of "common problems and topics" difficult.

The substantive panel was never implemented, at least as it was envisioned at the conception of this program. A few guest speakers were brought in, but because of scheduling conflicts each presentation was poorly attended by the students. Those students who did attend, however, found that the information received was beneficial. Next year we will ask that each participant reserve Thursday morning for the purpose of attending information sessions. Other staff members have indicated a willingness to work with us on a quarterly basis. Through this process our students will work with staff members in the areas of Reading, Language-Arts, Science, Social Studies, and Mathematics.

Some students felt alone during their involvement in the program. The seminar met for a two hour period once a week. This was the only planned opportunity for people to communicate with each other. Most were in different schools, so they saw each other only during the seminar. Next year we plan on using a "base school" for each seminar group. Hopefully this will help remedy this situation.

As in every program some students took advantage of the freedom in the program. Some students failed to live up to their commitments in the program. A few preferred not to attend the seminar, and others did not fulfill their responsibility in filling out required forms.

Finally, we have no hard data to prove that this program helps individuals become "superior" or "better-than-average" teachers. That is the major purpose of the program and we have no valid way to assess whether this has happened.

However, we do have "feeling information" about the program. We feel very good about the program, as do the students, cooperating teachers and principals. Even though we have no hard data, we feel the program has been successful and has fulfilled its major purpose.

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ROLES WHICH YOU PERFORM IN GROUPS

Sue Harry

When you are in a group--a faculty meeting, a discussion group, a committee meeting--have you ever stopped to think what roles you generally perform in these groups? First, are you usually one of those who get the meeting underway, suggest ways of doing things, clarify ideas, and summarize the points made? Or, second, do you generally agree with others, accept their suggestions, encourage them, and occasionally invite the participation of others? Or, third, do you dominate the discussion, emphasize insignificant details, or lapse into silence and refuse to participate?

When you observe your students in group work or watch them interacting with each other, can you pick out the roles they generally project in the classroom?

The roles that an individual assumes can be defined by the functions which he performs or the general nature of his contributions to the group. These functions are usually grouped into three categories, namely:

1. Task functions. These pertain directly to the task on which the group is working, and show concern for the group problem. They involve such roles as being:

The initiator (e.g., helps start the discussion, contributes new ideas);

The clarifier (e.g., interprets ideas or suggestions, asks for additional information);

The summarizer (e.g., pulls together related ideas, brings group up-to-date on progress);

The evaluator (e.g., assesses progress towards the goal; raises questions about the practicability of the solutions).

2. Maintenance functions. These relate more directly to the process of keeping the group together, and show concern for other group members. Some roles in the maintenance category are:

The gate-keeper (e.g., keeps communication channels open by inviting people to participate);

The supporter (e.g., encourages others, displays warmth and acceptance);

The harmonizer (e.g., mediates disagreements, relieves tensions among group members);

The follower (e.g., goes along with the movement of the group, accepts the ideas and suggestions of others).

3. Self-oriented functions. These relate to a person's individual needs which are not relevant to the group task or to group maintenance, and, if persisted in, may destroy the effectiveness of the group. In this category are such roles as:

The dominator (e.g., monopolizes the discussion, attempts to control the group by slighting the viewpoints of others, assumes a superior status);

The blocker (e.g., is stubborn and rigid, unreasonably disagrees with new ideas, is negative and critical of group goals);

The nitpicker (e.g., picks on and overemphasizes insignificant details, magnifies unessential things);

The withdrawer (e.g., acts bored and indifferent, shows lack of involvement, is silent and does not participate).

For a group to function successfully in attaining its goals over several meetings, both the task and maintenance functions need to be displayed by the members. Whenever someone performs a needed function in the group, he is contributing to the achievement of the group's goals; therefore, he is playing a leadership role at that time. Leadership, thus, moves from person to person as the group works on its task. (This is one way of looking at leadership, that is, focusing on the functions that must be performed by the members if the job is to be done successfully.)

Studies indicate that groups which are only task oriented may be very productive for a while, but eventually fall apart, because the members' emotional needs have not been met. Conversely, groups which focus on maintenance roles may have very good human relations, but may not last long with no actual task goals to hold them together. If a group were composed of people who engaged in only self-oriented functions, the group would soon break down because of the arbitrary actions of some of the members.

If your self-analysis indicates that you normally confine yourself to a few roles, either task or maintenance, why not widen your repertoire by consciously performing new ones at your next meeting? Also, provide practice discussion or problem-solving sessions to your students, with assigned roles at first, so that they will gradually feel more comfortable engaging in a variety

of roles which will be useful in the attainment of the group goals. You will thus be helping yourself and your students to exercise more leadership roles, to have more effect on the outcomes of the group deliberations, and, in general, to function more effectively as participants in your groups.

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I TORE THE TAG OFF MY MATTRESS

by James O. Morton

Several years ago I bought a new king-sized bed. After it was delivered and installed in the bedroom of my home, I noticed a tag attached to the mattress. The tag described the material used in the construction of the mattress and also contained the following warning: DO NOT REMOVE THIS TAG UNDER PENALTY OF THE LAW. The more I thought about the removal warning, the more angry I became. After all, it was my mattress. I bought and paid for it. It was in my home - my castle. What right had anyone to say "don't take this tag off or you'll be arrested?" At that point a number of questions went through my head: "Why shouldn't I tear it off?" "Who would know?" "The tag isn't attached to some kind of self destruct device that would blow up my mattress if torn off, is it?" "If I tear it off, will a signal sound in the local F.B.I. office?"

Finally, after looking under the bed and in the closet I closed the drapes and tore that warning tag off. Do you know what happened next? Nothing! No sirens. No bells. No self destruct mechanism. No F.B.I.

Since that time, I've often thought of my missing mattress tag. In a way, I suppose, it makes me a law violator. On the other hand, I somehow can't help but feel I've struck a blow for freedom. And, believe it or not, I sleep very well, every night, without the tag on my mattress.

So what does this have to do with anything? There are some rather interesting comparisons that can be made with some things going on in education today.

In our society there are people who hold the philosophy that the "law", whatever it is, must be upheld. Combined with this is a basic suspicion that people will break the law if they can. This basic mistrust of the integrity of the individual has resulted in all kinds of spy tactics, illegal entries to gain evidence, wire-taps, and attacks on the personal rights of the individual. People who support this point of view might be the type who would suspect that somebody might tear his mattress tag off if he could. The next step, silly as it seems, might be to have unannounced "no-knock" raids or inspections of homes where there is a suspicion that the residents are the kind who might tear off a mattress tag. Fortunately, the majority of people in our society are not ready to submit to this kind of violation of civil rights, although recent reports of federal drug raids involving innocent people suggest we may not be too far away from a crisis in this area.

In education, the situation may be similar. In recent years, we have had a number of national curriculum projects which demand a high level of submissiveness and conformity on the part of teachers. Some materials are touted as being "teacher proof" which roughly translated means "teachers can't louse them up." Other curriculum projects are more subtle in their approach. They suggest that their materials have been developed by experts and extensively tested at great cost. Teachers who use these new

instructional materials are told to carry out the extensive instructions with "fidelity". In some school districts there appears to have been suspicion that some teachers might be latent "tag-tearer-offers" and so close supervision has been provided. In these districts a kind of low key no-knock inspection system operates to force teachers to conform to district policy in instructional methodology. In my judgment there is little difference between checking on people to be sure they leave the tags on their mattresses and checking on teachers to be sure they have correctly organized the regalia and memorized the catechism to go with some national instructional project. In the first instance I see an invasion of civil rights, in the second, an invasion of professional rights.

When I decided to tear off my mattress tag I could have taken more extreme action. Instead of tearing the tag off, I could have taken an axe and chopped the mattress to pieces. Or, perhaps, set fire to the mattress and burned down the whole house. If I burned my house down, many other problems would have been solved: No more question about who gets to use the bathroom first; no more having to control the sound of stereo; no more deciding which T.V. program to watch. There are people in our society who have figuratively burned down the middle class symbols of their lives and gone to live in a tent. Often this new existence is called freedom. On closer observation, however, it usually appears to be exchanging one set of problems for another - one group of controls for another.

In education there are individuals who advocate burning down

the entire institution and starting over. The major point of this philosophy seems to be freedom of choice of the individual. What this idea seems to ignore is the accumulated knowledge and technical skill of society. Through the centuries we have suffered much and learned much. This knowledge has value and should be utilized as a tool for understanding and living in our society today. Each of us has the right to be free from invasion of our civil rights, but the question should also be asked--do we have a responsibility to the society and institutions which gave us these rights?

Somewhere between the extremes of checking to see that no one tears a tag off a mattress or fails to follow teaching instructions with "fidelity", and burning down the house and starting over, there must be a middle ground. It seems to me that the public school as we know it can survive if it can change. But as an institution, public education has been remarkably resistant to significant, or at least, sudden change. For nearly sixty years the Progressive Education movement held the center stage in educational philosophy. Most major institutions of higher education supported its ideas and graduated thousands of students prepared, at least to some degree, to follow its tenets. Yet the institutions of public education and the basic curriculum in the schools, remained gradually modified but continued to be far less "progressive" than some critics of the 1950's and 1960's would have us believe. I attended elementary and secondary schools in the 1930's and 1940's in what was considered to be a very good school system and it is very hard to recall any evidence of a "child centered"

curriculum anywhere in that school program. Those of you who went to school during that same period, the so called "far left era of the Progressive Movement", may also want to test your memories. I remember doing assignments teachers told me to do, reading books teachers told me to read, but I cannot recall one instance of anybody asking me what I wanted to do or how I felt about it. I honestly believe the reason no one ever asked me is because it never occurred to them that they should. With all the progressive ritual being conducted in teacher-training institutions it appears the basic message of humanizing the school failed to reach the nerve center of the school, the teacher in the classroom. Certainly, teachers in the schools heard about progressive education. Certainly, they took classes, read articles and heard speeches about the humanistic motives of the progressive movement. But somehow, the ideas never seemed to be translated into behavioral change. The same old methods of lecture, read, test, evaluate continued to be the basic teaching style.

We have recently experienced another major era of attempted curriculum change. Instead of Dewey, Rugg and Kilpatrick the major forces in this new movement were the U.S. Office of Education, the Ford and the Carnegie Foundations. Characteristic of this new movement in the 1960's was the expenditure of millions of dollars in an attempt to re-direct and restructure the curriculum in new and more efficient ways.

The result has been a massive attempt to manipulate the external environment. Upon the scene has come team teaching,

open space schools, computerized instruction, individualized packaged instruction, "teacher proof" materials, many forms of educational television and a strong attempt to control the curriculum through various forms of testing, assessment and accountability. Behavioral objectives have somehow taken the place of "the child" in the center of curriculum planning. Yet the phenomenum of resistance to change seems to continue in our public schools. Teachers are finding new ways to beat the system. Programs, designed to be followed "with fidelity" are not. Kits and complete "teacher proof" programs are being ignored. Behavioral objectives are being written, handed in and ignored. In my opinion, the attempted force change through the manipulation of the environment so characteristic of the sixties has been a massive failure. We may now be ready for a new curriculum emphasis.

As a group, teachers have not been mattress tag-tearer-offers. Many teachers I know would probably be scolders of mattress tag tearer-offers. Somehow to tear the tag off a mattress after some unknown authority specifically warned against it would be a horrible thing to do. This blind unquestioning acceptance of authority may be the major barrier to change in our public schools. Teachers rarely seem to ask crucial questions that should be asked about curriculum change. Probably the most important question is "How do you know?"

Whenever an important change is proposed, the teacher, who is usually central in the change, should begin to ask why. Unfortunately, there still appear to be too many teachers who believe that somehow,

someway, somebody "up there" knows what's going on. The experience of curriculum manipulation in the sixties and the paucity of research evidence of improvement should convince even the most confirmed "submitter" that the answers just aren't there.

What, then, should we do? It seems to me the answers are close at hand. As close as the basic fact that teaching and learning take place in the classroom (among other places) and not in the school district central office or even the U.S. Office of Education. Since teachers are the central force in education it's time they should begin to assert their professional independence. Who can know better what the children in a given classroom need? The role of experts in curriculum development should be to provide many instructional options to classroom teachers. District central office personnel should be responsible for keeping teachers abreast of the options. But the classroom teacher should be the individual who chooses which materials and methods to use. Can you imagine what might happen if every teacher had the freedom to choose his own instructional materials and devise his own methods for teaching? Some would probably fail. Many would probably continue in the same old lecture, read, recite, test method. But I believe there would be many teachers who would respond to their new freedom. By providing teachers with freedom of choice, we would place the responsibility for teaching and learning where it finally must rest. Educational institutions have not been responsive to change. Teachers have resisted "progressivism" and, more recently, "manipulativism". It's time to get to the place where change must occur. If we set

teachers free, the "tag-tearer-offers" among them could take over and give us our first radical change in American education.

THE LITTLE RED HEN

Malcom Allred

Inasmuch as this conference is concerned with children, it seems appropriate that we follow the custom long-practiced of reading a story after the lunch period. I have it on good authority that the sharing of a story quiets the savage nature of the children, is soothing to the jangled nerves of the teacher, and fosters a general atmosphere throughout the school so that the principal can contemplate the higher duties of his office with the door closed, his feet upon his desk, and his chin upon his chest. The story that I would like to read is the story of The Little Red Hen.

Now you must know, as a word of introduction, that this story was written many, many years ago and that the word red simply describes the particular fowl who is the main character of the story. In no was is the term red to imply that this story supports the philosophy of materialism promulgated by Marx. Nor is it to suggest that increased cultural ties should be made between this country and Red China. Nor is it an under-cover attempt to draw attention to certain minority groups. It has nothing to do with the Watergate problems (which seem to be flowing over). Nor is it an effort on my part to draw attention to myself because my name happens to be Allred.

With this introduction, you may now sit back in your chair and, I hope, enjoy the story of The Little Red Hen. (Read the story of The Little Red Hen)

And that is the story of The Little Red Hen. "So what," you say, "has the story of The Little Red Hen to do with early childhood

education or with this conference?

Ah! That is the very essence of early childhood education. You have missed the significance and the great truths presented here. Perhaps we need to tell the story in a present-day setting.

Well, you see, it is like this. There was this chick who was a real cool cat. She wasn't pigish about anything, but she could see that some people were ratting out and that kids were not getting the proper education diet what with just eating worms and stuff like that. One day she found this grain of an idea. It really sounded groovy as she talked to herself on the way to her pad. So this chick who was a real cool cat cruised around trying to get people to rap with her. But everyone was too busy doing his own thing and really wasn't interested in giving her feedback. They all said that they had heard her tape before and they weren't hep to her idea.

By now she could see that no one was about to bat the ball with her. So she did what any chick who is a real cool cat would do--she planted that grain of an idea. And you know what? That grain of an idea sprouted and grew and she did all kinds of fun and groovy things with it. She even made some whole-idea bread that she fed to her kids. And they grew and stretched and reached up and out and down and through until those kids were blowing the top off the district examinations as well as kicking the you-know-what out of the other kids in the school.

It wasn't long until others began to notice this chick who was a real cool cat and her kids and what they were doing and these other people wanted some of her whole-idea bread too. The administration heard about it at the city-wide PTA meeting. Eventually,

even the principal heard about it and he said, "I'll evaluate."

So he evaluated. He measured and tested. He figured the coefficients of correlation and calculated the standard deviation. He charted pupil progress and started to make a teacher profile (but his wife stopped him because she had seen this chick who was a real cool cat). He consulted with the district supervisor and corresponded with the Director of Project XYZ in the state department of education. He attended a national convention and read the ERIC REPORTER.

When all this and more had been finished, he called a faculty meeting to make his report. His evaluation was summarized, homogenized and pasteurized. After hours of talking and presenting, he concluded his evaluation with these seven words: MAN DOES NOT LIVE BY BREAD ALONE.

All the faculty members, particularly the ones who had been there many years, nodded their heads, wisely followed the principal out of the room, and left the world to darkness and the chick whose feathers were nolting.

Well, this chick who was a real cool cat became a Little Red Hen and spent almost all of her time walking about the school yard in her pickety-pickety fachion, scratching everywhere for worms. Although she hated fat, delicious worms, she had learned that they were an absolute necessity to the health of her children and to her own professional survival and personal welfare.

I am concerned because I see a great number of Little Red Hens who are walking about the school yard in their pickety-pickety fashions scratching everywhere for worms to feed to their children. I wonder what it was that changed the chick who was a real cool cat

just a few years ago into the Little Red Hen I see today and everyday? Where is the whole-idea bread she made from the grain of an idea? Yes, I am quite aware that man does not live by bread alone. But I would like to point out that he does not live without bread either. It seems to me that early childhood education is a whole-idea bread and although it is not the whole life of the child it is an excellent diet upon which others may develop enriched experiences for boys and girls. It is because I am concerned about chicks who are real cool cats becoming Little Red Hens who loose their whole-idea bread that I want to talk with you today.

This conference will center our attention upon new developments in early childhood education. I would like to focus for a few minutes upon some developments which, I am afraid, tend to restrict or to circumscribe the whole-idea bread of early childhood education. Some of these developments are of our own making. Some are the result of other causes. I see the following developments as threatening to early childhood education.

FIRST: We have not yet defined the term <u>early childhood education</u> in language which identifies purpose or goals. This term is generic. Yet it is used as a name for such specific and different programs as the Infant Education Research Project, various Montessori programs, and Nimnicht's program established in Greeley, Colorado. We need to seek some common ground upon which a concrete, understandable, operational definition of the term <u>early childhood education</u> can be based. This definition should be so structured that, among other things, it identifies or suggests purposes; it delimits responsibilities; and it encourages public as well as pro-

fessional participation in the development and support of the early childhood education concept and its programs.

SECOND: A review of so-called early childhood education programs reveals that the great majority of these are for the small minority of peoples. Because these programs have been designed for or limited to or provided by minorities, they have not received and do not now command the support of the majority. I believe that I can hear the so-called silent majority making some noise. There seems to be a stirring and an awakening among those who have been paying the major portion of the bill, but who have received only limited or intangible returns from their taxes. What I am hearing goes something like this: "We are not sure what you mean when you say early childhood education, but do not expect us to pay for it if our children can not participate in the program."

I raised this problem last year in the Snowbird Conference and I raise it again this year, for I see it as one of the developments affecting early childhood education. I am not attempting to say "I told you so," but only to make us aware of the fact that we need to look carefully, critically, and unemotionally at a growing dissatisfaction among many people with continued and increased efforts to provide special programs which exclude great numbers of children. I believe this dissatisfaction and resistance is increasing and that it will continue to increase, particularly if economic conditions do not dramatically swing in favor of the American consumer. In a very real sense it is a case of "What you see is what you get" and the majority of people have not seen, nor can not see, what they are getting or supposed to be getting from this expenditure of their

money. Rather, they tend to see what they don't get. And they don't get early childhood education programs for their children.

THIRD: There are some people within the profession who, while not opposed to the concept of early childhood education, are opposed to the growth of early childhood education programs. For example, there has been a resistance against early childhood education programs within the State of Utah by some superintendents. Their reasons include, among others, the following. (a) Young children should not be taken out of the home. They need to be with their mothers. (b) It is the responsibility of the home (supported by the church) to provide for children of pre-school age. (c) Schools are already handicapped by an inadequate financial base and can not support the programs now in operation as they should be supported. To add early childhood education programs would dilute the limited resources available for other programs. (d) Teachers are not trained to provide the kinds of programs needed by young children. (e) Facilities are not adequate. Materials of instruction are too costly. (f) The public would not support the program in my school.

Whether any one or any combination of these and other reasons is a justifiable reason or sufficient cause is not the point and it is not our purpose to debate the question at this time. The point is, one of the more powerful developments is the growing resistance from some school administrators to early childhood education programs. The resistance is strengthened when these administrators convince their boards of education to support their view. The resistance is further strengthened when these school administrators convince members of the State Legislature that the Governor's re-

quest for funding of early childhood education programs should not be approved and should not be supported with enabling legislation or with finance bills.

A gulf has developed and is widening between the professionals who are concerned with early childhood education and the professionals who are concerned with the so-called regular elementary school program. Reasons for the fracture are many and change from school to school and from program to program. However, the result is a problem of articulation, both for children and for the profession. Programs which should support each other, programs which should complement each other, programs which should supplement each other are growing apart from each other. Cooperation is being replaced by competition. Articulation is giving way to separation.

The problems of articulation exist not only between programs and among professionals in the public schools. They also exist between colleges or departments and among professionals on university campuses. The significance of this development on campuses of higher education should not be dismissed or treated lightly. It is most serious, for it is on the university campus that future teachers are trained, educated, and prepared.

FIFTH: The curriculum of the early childhood education program is becoming increasingly "academic" in design and in purpose. Obviously, you can see my bias when I single this out as a problem in the development of early childhood education programs. And it is equally obvious that this development is open for discussion and evaluation. It has philosophical implications as well as practical interpretations. The increased emphasis on "academics" at the early

childhood level is best seen when one examins evaluative criteria applied to early childhood education programs or when one reviews behavioral objectives of these programs.

The public press has been quick to pick up this development and to feature articles which are designed to tell parents how to teach their three-year-old to read more rapidly; or their four-year-old to conduct original research; or their seven-month-old to walk and so on an on ad infinitum. Curriculum processes as well as curriculum content have felt the lash of persons who believe that children can and should learn their three R's and everything else as soon as possible--and the sooner, the better.

This brings me to my sixth and final point for today's lesson.

SIXTH: Early childhood education is becoming "commericialized." The commercialization ranges from how-to-do-it teaching for parents through concept toys and generalization games to special schools established in the private sector. Many of these commerical schools are not harmful to children though their value may be questioned. However, the primary purpose of the entrepeneur is to realize a dollar return on his investment. Education of children is only of secondary concern and only after money has been gained. As of this date, few states have laws which are designed to protect the child in these situations. Some laws which are designed to protect the child physically do exist, but laws which would protect him socially, or emotionally, or mentally are not on the books. No state, to my knowledge, has enacted adequate legislation, and children are increasingly becoming pawns to the commercialization of parental concern. Court action to obtain and secure the rights of children

is slow and costly.

In summary, the whole-idea bread of early childhood education is under attack and is being challenged. Some of these oppositions are deliberate and are designed to destroy early childhood education programs. Others are the result of misinformation, lack of information, or simply growing pains of the early childhood education movement. I have attempted to identify six of these developments which, to me, are significant and deserve our serious attention. These six are:

(1) Develop a working definition and concept of early childhood education

(2) Provide early childhood education programs for all children who need or want them

(3) Gain the support of educational leaders for early childhood education

(4) Eliminate the problems of articulation between early childhood and other phases of the school and community programs

(5) Evaluate and correct the misdirected curriculum now being developed for early childhood education

(6) Rescue early childhood education from commericialization.

I am sure that there are at least ten times six that could be identified, some of which may be more significant than these. I do not intend to end my remarks on a negative note, nor do I wish to imply that there is no future for early childhood education. Just the opposite is true! The future for early childhood education is better now than it has ever been.

I sincerely believe, that if we address ourselves, our efforts, and our resources to these six; and resolve the issues and problems that they raise our discussion of new developments in early childhood education at the Snowbird Conference of 1984 will not read

like Orwell's book, but will identify such developments as: (a) increased public support for expanded early childhood education programs for all children; (b) individualization of learning opportunities; (c) articulation of educational experiences from early age to a very old age; (d) professionally competent people to provide necessary and desirable services; and (e) professional leadership for community-wide programs.

The better we do our homework now, the brighter becomes the future for early childhood education.

May I close with the words of Brutus from JULIUS CAESAR:

> There is a tide in the affairs of men
> Which taken at the flood leads on to fortune;
> Omitted, all the voyage of their life
> Is bound in shallows and in miseries.
> On such a full sea are we now afloat,
> And we must take the current when it serves,
> Or lose our ventures.
>
> (Act IV, iii, 220.)

TEACHER ATTITUDES TOWARD MINORITY DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

John E. Ulibarri

The Supreme Court in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka in 1954 (347 U. S. 483) reversed Plessy v. Ferguson 1896 (163 U. S. 537) with its "separate but equal" doctrine, holding that segregation in public education was a denial of equal protection under the fourteenth amendment. Ten years later the Congress of the United States passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Both actions were an attempt to eliminate the practice of separation of peoples in the United States. However, literature pertaining to the education of minority disadvantaged children and the attitudes of school personnel toward these children, since 1964, indicates that they are still separated attitudinally.

It is impossible to speak of the attitudes of school personnel in hard, fast terms, since what school people think about race is subject to wide variations. Although attitudes have not been uniform, it is safe to say that on the whole, school personnel have not faced squarely the moral issue of racial attitudes existing within the American educational system. Even though anthropologists and psychologists, through research, have proven that race is not a significant factor in determining an individual's capacity to learn, middle-class America has stereotyped minorities as though race was in fact significant in a system whose ends and values are self-fulfilling.[1]

School personnel are largely members of the middle class in orientation and often hold the same stereotypes as the lay public.

The values and perceptions of teachers impede effective communications between themselves and their minority pupils.[2] Passow feels that there is conclusive evidence that a teacher's social origin affects his attitudes.[3] Their future oriented value system, work ethic, and competition tend to alienate them from minority students.[4]

Teachers, upon encountering disadvantaged students whose values are different, still measure progress on a middle-class scale.[5] The tragedy of education is that few educators recognize cultural diversity in their classrooms. Often, teachers react negatively toward minority children because they are perceived as different from acceptable middle-class behavior.[6]

Teachers specifically argue that the culturally different is inferior, which automatically tends to place that child outside the accepted moral order and framework of the Anglo American society.[7] This is done by attributing to the minority student characteristics which are unacceptable to the mores of the middle class. Teachers regard their minority students as intellectually limited,[8] having poor study habits,[9] poorly motivated, with discipline problems and parents who are not concerned with the education of their children.[10]

In addition, in teaching disadvantaged children, many teachers have reduced their expectations and, consequently, their academic standard. Condescending attitudes of teachers hurt children, despite the content of the lesson, the topic of discussion, or any other structured teaching method.[11]

A study that dramatically demonstrates the effect of teacher attitudes on pupil performance was conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson. The study dealt with students in grades from one through six

in a school that served a minority lower socio-economic community on the West Coast. Every child was given an intelligence test, a test described by the authors as one that would predict intellectual blooming. About 20 percent of the students were picked at random. Their teachers were told that those students tested high as potential spurters. The only difference between classmates was in the mind of their teachers. In total, the experimental group gained four more points in I. Q. Teachers described the blooming children as more interesting, curious, happier and better adjusted. Other children gained in I. Q., but were reacted to negatively by their teachers. They were viewed as less interesting, less well-adjusted, and less affectionate.

This experiment suggested that teacher expectation plays a big part in the students' sense of worthiness and his desire to succeed. The authors refer to positive teacher expectations as the Pygmalion theory; that is, students thought to have promise benefit from the preconceived notions of their teachers,[12] effecting what Rosenthal calls the "self-fulfilling prophecy."[13] "In other words, his shortcomings may originate not in his different ethnic, cultural and economic background, but in his teachers' response to that background."[14] Logically speaking, then, if the child does poorly in school, perhaps it is because that is what is expected of him.

Teachers are not alone in their low expectations of minority students. Clark found that "...the most outstanding point of agreement among counselors was that the CD [Culturally Deprived] student lacked motivation."[15] In an investigation conducted by the Fair Employment Practices Agency of the Oakland School District, the

investigator placed before a counselor a booklet entitled Success Story. The investigator asked if such a booklet would be of any assistance to the counselor, with the following results:

> The counselor turned the pages himself and seeing a photograph of a Negro executive with the title of "Asst. Chief, Advance Projects," stated: "We have no Negroes in this school who could ever do this job." He then looked at the picture of a group of pharmacists, one of whom was a Negro, and stated that: "We have no Negro students who could qualify for this type of position." Also pictured was a Negro girl operating a tabulator; he stated: "We probably have a girl or two who might be able to do this job." A picture of a salesman for an oil company was shown in the pamphlet; the counselor felt they had no Negroes in that school who could ever hold that position. Subsequently, he eliminated engineering, store managers, tool designers, accountants, doctors and lawyers as occupations requiring skills which none of the Negro students in his school could acquire.[16]

Administrators also believe them to be inferior and conclude that the Mexican-American children see themselves that way.[17] Sometimes the only reason given for the poor performance of the disadvantaged child is simply that the child is a member of a disadvantaged group.[14]

"The paternalistic attitudes of administrators, teachers, and counselors can but add insult to the deep injury suffered through the centuries."[18] Minority disadvantaged children learn all too quickly of their inferior status to which they are classified by society and their teachers, when they see that they are almost always treated negatively and kept apart from their Anglo peers. They react with feelings of inferiority, humiliation, and question their own personal worth. Stacker writes that a Mexican-American child is taught by the school that his culture is no good and therefore assumes that he is no good.[19] This too readily accepted notion of a child's

negative self-concept has the effect of protecting "...educators from in-depth examination of other problems relative to the success and failure of Mexican American students in the 'Anglo' school."[17]

Middle-class white prospective teachers have been found to share and carry into the classroom the negative racial attitudes of their communities.[20] Presently being trained in teacher education institutions is a large crop of future teachers whose attitudes and beliefs about the ghetto children they will teach remains hidden and unchallenged. Pre-service teachers subscribe to much of the degrading mythology about minorities and accept them as somehow inferior and socially backward.[21] Unprepared to meet the problems that exist in these schools, new graduates often view their new teaching positions "with distaste and reject as unworthy of their efforts the very children who most need to learn."[22]

Negative attitudes also lead to a very serious problem in depressed innercity school areas. Two results are exceptionally high teacher turnover, and many competent teachers refusing to work in the innercity. A more serious problem is that of competent teachers requesting transfers out of those schools.[7] The problem is rooted in the orientation of middle-class school personnel as they expect the culturally different child to become middle-class Anglo American, in order to acquire equal status, rather than changing the school to meet the education and cultural needs of the child. According to Glasman,

> When middle-class teachers are unsuccessful in attempting to change the culturally different students in this manner, they inevitably formulate the opinion that the attempts are useless and, thus, they also become unsatisfied with their work. The more "alien" the teachers are to these students,

> the quicker they lose faith in such attempts, the quicker they become biased in their relations with the culturally different students and the faster they become dissatisfied with their work.[7]

Recent studies indicate that teachers manifest an unwillingness to teach disadvantaged students. In a survey conducted by Wynn, in an answer regarding the preference to teach groups of one composition, "...34 percent of the white teachers preferred teaching white students only."[23] Wiles' study indicated that only five percent of the teachers questioned wanted to teach where students were predominately or all non-white. He also revealed that attitudes about students become less favorable as the composition of the student body becomes more non-white and more disadvantaged.[24]

The conclusion that teachers prefer not to teach minority disadvantaged children is confirmed by Coleman[25] and Goldberg, who wrote the following regarding prospective teachers:

> In 1962 better than a third of the new teachers appointed to Manhattan Schools declined the appointment. Although they had prepared to teach, they apparently preferred almost any other kind of employment or none at all to teaching in a slum school.[26]

Groff established that the high turnover of teachers of culturally deprived children was because of peculiarities in the personalities of the culturally deprived.[27] Clark's study adds "poor heredity," "poor home background," "culture deprivation," and "low I. Q." to the list of teacher complaints regarding their minority students.[28] Gottlieb adds evidence when he found that white teachers perceived their Negro students as "talkative," "lazy," "fun loving," "high strung," and "rebellious." Teachers tended to avoid those adjectives which would reflect stability and other positive qualities.[10] Kozol's reactions are much stronger when he emphasized the degree

of hostility and bigoted attitudes of teachers and other school personnel.[29] His conclusions that inner city teachers are prejudiced was also presented by Coleman[25] and the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders.[30] Disadvantaged students also "...elicit from many of their teachers scorn, resentment, antagonism..."[31] and the fear of being physically harmed or threatened.[32]

Teachers carry many of these attitudes over to the students' cumulative records by writing more negative than positive remarks, despite the pupil's intelligence or academic achievement.[33]

Often teachers perceive themselves as being in school to control their students, not to teach them. Rajpal found that teachers considered behaviors more serious when they represented boys of minority status.[34] Teachers feel that behavioral standards are to be maintained in all schools, but they are particularly vital in a school where the largest percentage of students are Negro.[6] With such deep-seated negative attitudes toward minority disadvantaged children, one cannot expect "...positive products of an educational experience in which teachers perceive their students as enemies."[35]

Many teachers assigned to schools with large percentages of minority students have little or no understanding, knowledge, or training in working with disadvantaged children, and often inexperienced teachers are given what should be considered the most important teaching assignments.[36]

Most school personnel are meeting with experiences in which their training has not prepared them. A survey of ten major teacher training institutions by Green showed that those institutions are not realistically facing the problems of providing quality teachers

for urban youth. Teacher educators themselves need to examine and improve their knowledge and attitudes toward disadvantaged youth.[37]

Too often, efforts to compensate for inequality of educational opportunity have resulted in giving disadvantaged children more--but more of the same--the same teachers, the same counselors, the same attitudes.[1] What disadvantaged students need is a change in teacher attitude. The Coleman report shows that the quality of the teacher in the classroom is by far the most important factor in the education of children, including physical plant, teaching techniques, or educational materials available.[25]

Development of quality teaching for minority disadvantaged children should begin in teacher education institutions. Special training programs should be offered to white student teachers, dealing with minority disadvantaged children. Urdang regards student teaching with disadvantaged children as essential.[38] A resolution adopted by NEA in May 1965 supports the ideas stated above. The National Association should:

> Promote and conduct recruitment activities, working with teacher training institutions in revising teacher preparation requirements to include training in intergroup relations and in the skills and attitudes necessary for teachers working with children of differing economic, racial, and ethnic backgrounds.[1]

Resolutions must be followed by positive action, however. The action that can be encouraged for practicing teachers is the promotion of in-service training programs dealing with minority culture, history, and developing positive teacher attitudes toward minorities.

School personnel dealing with disadvantaged children should possess the conviction that they can learn, and that teachers can create the necessary conditions for learning. A teacher must

understand the living conditions of his students and the sociology of the school he is teaching in. He must be competent in intragroup interaction, skillful in appraising the learning problems of his or her students, expert in the content of the subject matter he is teaching, and flexible in his teaching approach.[39] At the same time, the teacher needs to be more concerned about the student's learning than for the subject matter.[40]

School personnel must not reject the minority disadvantaged child because of who he is but recognize him as an individual and acquire emphathy for the needs of that child. Teachers need to recognize that great disparity exists between the values accepted by disadvantaged pupils and the values espoused by the school.[41] They need to understand, respect and accept the child's culture and not try to middle-class him,[42] as well as recognize his non-verbal achievement.[4]

Small classes are imperative, and special consultants on the minority child should be sought out; school personnel should remain open to new suggestions; meticulous teacher planning is critical; and academic standards should not be lowered.[42] Special efforts should be made to place the teachers with positive and mature attitudes toward children in schools located in lower-class neighborhoods.[43] Ideally, the teacher is understanding but not overly sympathetic; firm, but not inflexible; careful, but not exacting. He is not prejudiced, has an intense commitment to his role, wants to teach, and cares enough about the minority disadvantaged children to teach them, and is convinced that they can learn.[31]

The secret of developing respect for the minority disadvantaged child is to know his positive aspects, as well as his strengths.

Hence, it is critical that the positive aspect of a child's culture, behavior and life style is recognized.[44] Teachers not working in target schools could also benefit from an increased knowledge of minorities. In-service training programs could concentrate on increasing the competence and confidence of teachers assigned to schools in low income minority neighborhoods. In-service experiences could include lectures, readings, and films on history and culture. Visits to juvenile court, welfare offices, neighborhood meetings, as well as conversations with parents and community leaders can help familiarize school personnel with the minority community. Anderson reports that teachers who have attended summer institutes or in-service training programs related to the teaching of disadvantaged children evidence the greatest willingness to teach disadvantaged children.[45]

In conclusion, if we, as members of the education profession, believe in our commitment to serve children, we must realistically examine our attitudes towards all children. I believe Dr. Dodson expresses my convictions when he states that:

> No nation can maintain the distinction of being democratic if it does not make allowances for cultural diversity. Such differences cannot be "just tolerated." They must be respected and encouraged so long as they possess value for any segment of the citizenry. This in a real sense, this opportunity to pursue autonomous goals, is a measure of "democracy." No person can make his fullest contribution to the total society with a feeling of compromise about "who he is" because he is a minority group member.[46]

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PASTIMES, GAMES, AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

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In an attempt to examine classroom behavior as it is and not necessarily as we would like it to be, it is necessary to review some simplistic but fundamental ideas that may have been submerged by the pressure of educational problems. One simple observation is that all classroom behavior takes place within a limited amount of time whether that be a twenty-minute module or a forty-five minute period. In addition, the nature of classrooms has been characterized in terms of the way the teacher and student uses that allotted time. Some classes are typified as "good" which may mean that the people in them use their time to accomplish approved tasks. Other classes may be described as "bad" which might mean that the students are irresponsible and "waste" their time. Common sense interpretations of how people spend time don't appear to go much farther than judgments made on a dimension of wasting time to using time wisely. Similarly, common classroom interpretations concerning the reasons why people use time in certain ways are not much more insightful. They are often expressed by such judgments as "Johnny wastes time looking out the window because he is lazy," or "Jimmy fools around (wastes time) because he wants attention," or "Jane does her work (spends time wisely) because she is a good girl." We may achieve considerably more insights into classroom behavior if we use a more adequate frame-of-reference to interpret how and why students and teachers use their time in certain ways.

A noted psychiatrist suggests that people use their time in five principal ways.[1] People engage in rituals, pastimes, psycho-

logical games, work, and open relations. Ritualistic behavior is highly predictable, while behavior classed as being "open" has a low degree of predictability. For example, when a teacher begins the ritual of calling the role, his behavior and that of the class can be readily anticipated for the next few minutes. On the other hand, if several people began an "open" discussion of an event, that is a discussion during which there was a genuine attempt to pool information and synthesize ideas, it would be very difficult to predict the nature and outcome of the interaction.

Pastimes have the function of just using time as their name indicates; and as noted, they have a high degree of predictability. In terms of sequence, pastimes often follow rituals. Consider a chance meeting of two teachers in the hall of a school whose conversation might go something like this:

Mr. Jones:	"Well. Hi! Miss Smith. I haven't seen you for a while. How are you?"	--Exchange #1 (ritual)
Miss Smith:	"Just fine."	
Mr. Jones:	"Great weather. I'm sure going to enjoy the long weekend."	
Miss Smith:	"It's beautiful weather."	--Exchange #2 (pastime)
Mr. Jones:	"Yeah."	
Miss Smith:	"But I have to stay home and plan. I just don't know what to do. My students have just quit trying. They don't do their homework, they don't participate in class discussions, and they don't read anything."	--Exchange #3 (pastime)
Mr. Jones:	"Oh, I know it. Mine don't do anything either. Besides, they talk all the time."	
Miss Smith:	"I don't know what to do about it."	
Mr. Jones:	"Neither do I. Isn't it awful?"	

The first two exchanges are readily recognizable. The greeting ritual is highly predictable, and the weather pastime slightly less so. One doesn't know exactly what will be said about the weather, but the conversation patter will proceed on a rather innocuous level. The third exchange sounds like familiar complaining, but it can be classified as a pastime and called "Ain't It Awful." This pastime is predictable in the sense that it will concern the delinquency of someone else: delinquent parents, teachers, cultures, sub-cultures, religions, politicians, whatever. "Ain't It Awful," is a very popular pastime.

Pastimes have several important characteristics. The most important one is that they are used to spend time in a nonthreatening fashion. Pastimes are compatible talk-patterns and as such they can go on for long periods of time, for no one is advancing an argument that needs a conclusion. For example, reminiscing ("Remember When") is a popular pastime which can go on for as long as the participants wish. We might imagine the following conversation between two experienced teachers who begin by discussing curriculum reform.

> "Boy, these new curriculum programs ought to be good; they are so lavishly financed."
>
> "Yeah. Remember when we used to develop our own programs? We didn't get paid for that."
>
> "That's right. But we didn't have such unruly students. We had more time to do such things as curriculum development."
>
> "True. The students aren't as good as they were back then. They sure don't make them like they used to."

Pastimes serve useful functions, particularly among groups of people who have just met at parties or conferences. There people can indulge in such pastimes as "Remember When," "Whatever Happened To...?"

"Ever Been To...?" while they familiarize themselves with the new setting. However, for many people who lack goal direction, pastimes are a very comfortable way of spending time even in very familiar situations. Because pastimes deal with stereotypic patterns, they have a way of minimizing the uniques of an individual's experience.

Pastimes are evident in the classrooms, as indicated by the familiar activity called "busywork." In this type of activity the teacher assigns the students tasks couched in a relatively meaningless atmosphere just to keep them occupied. The teacher uses the time being spent by the students to grade papers, to rest, or for whatever purpose seems important at the time. While pastiming is present in the classroom, caution needs to be taken when judging whether an activity is a pastime or not. Both the form of the activity and the intent behind it must be considered. For example, a teacher ends her lesson fifteen minutes before the period is over and announces that the students will have the remainder of the time for individual study. The teacher then begins to grade papers while a few students are reading, others daydreaming, and still others are engaging in conversational pastimes with their peers. In this case, it would appear that students had been given permission to select their own type of busywork. Consequently, the activity could well be considered a pastime. However, an activity such as an individual study period could be classed as operations or work if the teacher was acting as a resource, offering feedback on progress or giving individual instruction when needed. The same type of parallel can be drawn for drill, recitation, and other activities. Drill and recitation can be used for practicing skills, and assessing learned abilities. In cases where these were the purposes, such activities

could be considered as operations or work if the teacher gave adequate feedback and adjusted his instructional procedures accordingly. On the other hand, recitation, drill, tests and other activities can be used as pastimes. Consider the teacher who noting that there were ten minutes left in the period engaged in an unplanned spelling drill, "...because there was nothing else to do, and besides, it couldn't have hurt them." Or consider the social studies teacher who borrowed an ecology film from the biology department with the comment, "Well, if it's about ecology, it has to have something to do with social studies. And besides, it will be a good way to get through the day." Also, there was an English teacher who said, "...well, then I gave them a pop quiz and let them grade the papers themselves. That took up the rest of the period." Considering the intent and the format, these latter activities could be categorized as pastimes. The identification of pastimes in the classroom assumes more importance when it is considered that they can often set the stage for "psychological games."

The type of activity that is classed as a "game" is an interaction pattern that involves a "win" where one of the participants gains a material or psychological advantage over another. Games can be "light" where the "win" is not particularly noticeable or disturbing to other observers, such as in "Mine Is Better Than Yours," or the games can be "heavy" where the "win" can have severe consequences, as in "Courtroom" and "Cops and Robbers." "Mine Is Better Than Yours,"(MISBY) is a common game and as such can be found in the classroom. Imagine the following conversation between two students:

"You know, Joan, Mrs. Brown is a great English teacher."

"Jane, I had her last year, and she is not nearly as good as Mr. Grant."

"I think Mrs. Brown is really interesting."

"She doesn't lecture nearly enough. All of those silly activities?"

"Lectures are boring, writing plays and that sort of thing is much more fun."

"Well, I think that the only way you learn anything is from a good lecture."

"I don't think you know what you're talking about."

"I do too. My grades are better than yours."

Such a game can have more serious implications between student and teacher, as revealed in the following:

"Mrs. Brown, we would learn more if you would lecture."

"You don't really learn that way, Jane."

"Well, my friend had you last year, and she says she learns a lot more from Mr. Grant, and she's a better student than anyone in this room."

"Well, she may think she learns more, but learning through activities is a better way."

"I don't think so. I think my friend is right."

"Well, the class and I decided that we would learn through activities. After all, a group decision is better than one made by a single individual."

It might be noted from the last conversation that games distort the issues involved. It appears that the initial issue involved a conflict within Jane, initiated apparently by her appreciation of Mrs. Brown's class and her admiration of Joan's academic accomplishments. Mrs. Brown didn't have that background, however, when confronted by the challenge, "We would learn more if you would lecture." Mrs. Brown responded with a denial, but to Jane it was a denial of her feelings. Jane responded in kind, using her friend as an authority.

Mrs. Brown "upped the ante" and used the authority of the class. In effect, Mrs. Brown was involving the class in a rapidly escalating scenario akin to "so's your old man." The point is that the time spent in playing games does not resolve issues. In fact, such behavior can act as "set-ups" for more serious "gaming."

Institutional settings, such as found in schools and colleges, seem to accommodate certain sets of games and pastimes which are played with such frequency and predictability that they take on aspects of traditional behavior. The conventional university classroom provides an excellent example. In many instances, college teachers use a mid-term and final examination as the means for evaluating a student. Such limited means for evaluation are bound to create anxieties in many students. When it is announced that the examination will "cover" the material dealt with in the class, we are presented with a set-up for "I've Got A Secret." It is virtually impossible for a student to know equally well all of the material covered in a course and this ambiguity activates a varying amount of anxiety in students. Consequently, the students try to deal with the "secret", the exact nature of the examination, in various ways which will reduce the anxiety. One approach is "Let's Pull A Fast One On Joey." In the mild form, students try to "psych out the prof" with such questions as "Is it gonna be essay or multiple-choice?" "Will it just cover the lectures, or will it include outside readings?" and "How long will it last?" Students who play a harder form of "Joey" might make several appointments with the professor in an attempt to "psych him out" on a personal basis. Played in the extreme, "Joey" will result in an attempt by a student to steal a copy of the examination. If the student is successful, he will get an "A" on the ex-

amination with a minimum of effort and a maximum amount of security. Indeed, he will have "pulled a fast one on the professor." If the student is caught in the attempt, however, he may well find himself playing "Courtroom" in the Dean's office. In this case, confronted by the professor (acting the role of prosecutor) and the Dean (acting the role of judge), the student might lapse into a hard game of "Yes... But." "Yes, it is true I tried to steal the test, but if the professor made the material and the assignment more clear, I wouldn't have stolen the test and it wouldn't have been necessary for me to become a thief." Then, looking at the professor, the student might say, "See What You Made Me Do?" (SYMD).

"I've Got A Secret" sets up an area for other identifiable patterns of behavior, each of which has its own unique talk. One common game is "Wooden Brain," or "What can you expect from a student with a wooden brain?" The answer is obviously "not much." The game goes something like this: "I've really tried to understand this material; I've gotten a tutor and everything, but not one thing I can possibly do will help. No matter how hard I try, I don't get it. I never can get it." (Look, I've really got a wooden brain, believe me, it's true) "I'm really worried because if I don't pass this course, I will be placed on academic probation, and then my folks will probably withdraw me from college (Poor Little Me). "Wooden Brain" is played more blatantly in high schools. Teachers are besieged with such questions as ""What didja say?" "What page 'zit on?" "Is it in the blue book or the red one?" and "When 'zit due, Wednesday or Thursday?" By this time, the teacher is looking like a fox harried by hounds and in a greatly frustrated state might well respond with, "If

you don't listen you will have to pay the price." (It's your fault, not mine.)

In the introduction of this paper, it was stated that if the way teachers and students used time was examined from an organized frame-of-reference, more insights might be forth-coming in terms of understanding classroom behavior. In view of the basic ideas presented here, we would like to advance the following hypotheses.

1. Games, rituals, and pastimes are pre-learned patterns of behavior that people transfer to new situations. These patterns of behavior do effect an economy of time in appropriate situations. However, when applied to situations where they are unnecessary they deny the individual a proportionate measure of autonomy.

2. When pastimes and games occupy a large proportion of class time, the issues that arise are so distorted that the solution of problems places many individuals at a serious disadvantage.

3. Rituals, pastimes and games constitute the prime apparatus which most people use in interpersonal situations. When this apparatus is challenged, many people become quite threatened, for it is the only tool with which they have to deal with others. Minimizing pastimes and games in a social situation is a difficult process which takes much consideration and care.

Many are convinced that the traditional ways that we have used to conceive educational problems and their solutions are inadequate. Along with others, we feel that completely different frames-of-reference for thinking about classroom behavior and its consequences is required. A number of different approaches need to be suggested, and to be considered not only in terms of their immediate impact, but in view of their potential for development. It is in this spirit that the ideas presented in this paper are offered.